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RÁJSHAHI & KUCH-BEHAR DIVISION
DARJILING, JALPAIGURI, KUCH-BEHAR,
RANGPUR, DINÁJPUR, BOGRA,
MÁLDAH, RÁJSHÁHI, PABNÁ & RÚNGPUR.
BHUTAN

F.b.40
Statistical account of Bengal
by W. W. Hunter
Vol IX — districts
of Murshidabad & Pabna
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PREFACE TO VOLUME IX.

OF THE

STATISTICAL ACCOUNT OF BENGAL.

THIS volume treats of Murshidábád, the metropolitan District of Lower Bengal in the last century, and of Pábná, the District which has become the central mart for the great new staple of Bengal in the present day. Murshidábád forms one of the few examples of a District which has declined in opulence and importance under British rule. In 1765 we found it overflowing with the wealth of a luxurious court and capital; during the early years of our Government it continued to be the seat of the supreme civil and criminal tribunals; nor was it until 1790 that the final appeal in criminal suits was definitively transferred from the 'mutilated Chiefship' to Calcutta. Murshidábád, moreover, was the commercial not less than the political capital of Lower Bengal. The great native bankers kept their hoards within its walls. Kásimbázár, in its immediate neighbourhood, formed the site of one of the oldest and most splendid of the Company's mercantile settlements. The history of Murshidábád during the last century was the history of Bengal. It is now a decaying rural town; and

warehouses of Kásimbázár, all that remains are some brick ruins in a swamp.

The existence of Pábná as a separate District, dates only from 1832; and it was not till 1859 that it became altogether a separate administrative unit. Lying at the point of the angle formed by the convergence of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, it commands the two river highways of Eastern India. Its marts, often of mushroom growth, have become centres for collecting and re-distributing the exports and imports of rich provinces; and the Sirájganj merchants transact, on an arid sandbank, half the jute trade of Bengal. The rural population have proved themselves quick to appreciate and to act upon the rights which English rule secures to rich and poor. They have fought out with keen persistence, but with few ebullitions of violence, the struggle between landlord and tenant, and are conducting before our eyes an agrarian revolution by due course of law.

The Districts of Murshidábád and Pábná, dealt with in this volume, contained in 1872 a population of 2,565,220 souls, and covered an area, as estimated for the Census of that year, of 4616 square miles. I beg to express my obligations to my friend Mr. J. S. Cotton, late Fellow of Queen's College, Oxford, for his help in compiling the Murshidábád Account.

W. W. H.

1876.

TABLE OF CONTENTS:

DISTRICTS OF MURSHIDABAD AND PABNA.

	PAGE
DISTRICT OF MURSHIDABAD,	17-265
TOPOGRAPHY AND GENERAL ASPECT OF THE DISTRICT,	17-35
Area and Boundaries,	17-18
Jurisdiction and Historical Sketch,	18-21
Physical Aspects,	21-23
Hills,	23
River System, River Traffic, Lakes, and Marshes,	23-30
Fish and Fisheries,	30-32
Marsh Products,	32
Lines of Drainage,	33
Mineral Products,	33-34
Forest and Wild Vegetable Products,	34
Feræ Naturæ,	34-35
THE PEOPLE,	35-99
Population Estimates prior to 1872,	35-36
Population according to the Census of 1872,	36-42
Ethnical Division of the People,	42-45
Immigration and Emigration,	45-46
Aboriginal Tribes,	46-48
List of Castes,	48-56
Religious Division of the People,	56-61
List of Towns and Villages,	61-63

DISTRICT OF MURSHIDABAD—*continued.*

PAGE

The People—*continued.*
Description of Towns and Villages, 62-87
Places of Historical Interest, 87-94
Fairs and Religious Gatherings, 94-95
Village Officials, 95-96
Material Condition of the People: Clothing, Dwellings, Food, etc., 96-99

AGRICULTURE, 99-131
Rice Cultivation, 99-104
Cereals, Green Crops, Oil-seeds, Fibres, Vegetables, etc., 104-105
Cultivated Area, Out-turn of Crops, etc., 105-107
Condition of the Peasantry, 107-108
Domestic Animals, 108-109
Agricultural Implements, 109
Wages and Prices, 109-113
Weights and Measures, 113-114
Day-Labourers, 114-115
Spare Land, 115
Land Tenures, 115-123
Rates of Rent, 123-130
Manure, Irrigation, Fallow Land, and Rotation of Crops, 130-131

NATURAL CALAMITIES, ETC., 131-141
Blights, 131
Floods, 131-133
Embankments, 133-135
Droughts, 135
Compensating Influences in case of Floods, 135
Famine Warnings, 136
Famines of 1769-70, 1866, and 1874, 136-140

FOREIGN AND ABSENTEE PROPRIETORS, 140-141

DISTRICT OF MURSHIDABAD—*continued.*

PAGE

MEANS OF COMMUNICATION, MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE, ETC., . . . 141-172
Roads and Railways, . . . 141-148
Manufactures, ... 148-156
Commerce and Trade, . . . 157-169
Capital and Interest, . . . 169-170
Local Institutions, ... 170-172
Newspapers and Printing Presses, . . 172
Incomes and Income Tax, . . . 172

HISTORY OF THE DIWANI AND NAWABS, . . 172-195

ADMINISTRATIVE, ... 195-236
Revenue under Muhammadan Rule, . 195-196
Revenue and Expenditure under British Administration, ... 196-200
Land Revenue and Subdivision of Estates, . 198-201
Police and Jail Statistics, . . . 201-215
Educational Statistics, . . . 215-229
Postal Statistics, ... 229-230
Administrative and Fiscal Divisions (*Parganás*), ... 230-236

METEOROLOGICAL AND MEDICAL ASPECTS, . 236-252
Meteorology and Climate, Temperature, Rainfall, etc., ... 236-239
Medical Aspects, ... 239-240
Diseases, ... 240-243
Vital Statistics, ... 243-244
Indigenous Vegetable Drugs, . . 244-246
Charitable Dispensaries, Lunatic Asylums, etc., ... 246-251
Cattle Diseases, ... 251-252

FAMILY HISTORY OF THE SETHS, . . 252-265

PAGE

DISTRICT OF PABNA, . . . 269-376

TOPOGRAPHY AND GENERAL ASPECT, . 269-278
Area and Boundaries, . . . 269-270
Jurisdiction, ... 270
General Aspect of the Country, . . 271
River System, ... 271-272
Ferries, ... 272-273
Lakes, Marshes, etc., . . . 273
River Traffic, ... 273-275
Fish and Fisheries, ... 275-276
Marsh Cultivation, ... 276-277
Line of Drainage, ... 277
Jungle Produce, ... 277
Feræ Naturæ, ... 277-278

THE PEOPLE, ... 278-301
Population according to the Census of 1872, 278-281
Ethnical Division of the People, . . 281-285
Immigration and Emigration, . . 285
Castes, ... 286-288
Religious Division of the People, . . 288-290
Marriage Customs among the Muhammadans, ... 290-291
List of Towns and Villages, with Descriptions, 291-297
Character of the People, . . . 297-298
Village Officials, ... 298-299
Material Condition of the People: Clothing, Dwellings, Food, etc., . . . 299-301

AGRICULTURE, ... 301-325
Rice Cultivation, ... 301-302
Cereals, Green Crops, Fibres, Vegetables, Miscellaneous Crops, etc., . . . 302-303
Jute Cultivation, ... 303-305

DISTRICT OF PABNA—*continued.*

PAGE

Agriculture—*continued.*

Cultivated Area, Out-turn of Crops, etc., . 305
Condition of the Cultivators, . . 305-306
Domestic Animals, ... 306
Agricultural Implements, . . . 306-307
Wages and Prices, ... 307-309
Weights and Measures, . . . 309
Landless Day-Labourers, . . . 309
Spare Land, ... 310
Land Tenures, ... 310-316
Rates of Rents, ... 316-318
Rent Disputes and Agrarian Disturbances, 318-325
Manure, Irrigation, Rotation of Crops, etc., . 325

NATURAL CALAMITIES, . . . 325-328
Blights, Floods, and Droughts, . . 325-326
Famines of 1866 and 1874, . . . 326-327
Famine Warnings, ... 327-328

FOREIGN AND ABSENTEE PROPRIETORS, . 328

MEANS OF COMMUNICATION, MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE, ETC., . . . 328-353
Roads and Railway, ... 328-330
Manufacture of Indigo, . . . 330-331
Manufacture of Jute, . . . 331, 352
Manufacture of Paper, Silk, Cotton, etc., . 331-333
Condition of the Manufacturing Classes, . 333-334
Commerce and Trade, . . . 334-336
Statistics of River Traffic in Native Boats, . 336-342
Trade of Sirájganj, ... 342-350
Statistics of Steamer Traffic, . . 351
Capital and Interest, . . . 350
Charitable, Educational, and Literary Institutions, ... 352-353
Incomes and Income Tax, . . . 353

DISTRICT OF PABNA—*continued.*

	PAGE
ADMINISTRATIVE,	353-369
Revenue and Expenditure,	353-355
Land Revenue,	353-355
Magisterial, Civil, and Revenue Courts,	355-356
Police and Jail Statistics,	356-360
Educational Statistics,	360-364
Postal Statistics,	361-365
Administrative and Fiscal Divisions (*Parganás*),	365-369
CLIMATE AND MEDICAL ASPECTS,	369-376
Climate, Temperature, and Rainfall,	369-372
Medical and Vital Statistics,	372
Diseases,	372-373
Indigenous Vegetable Drugs,	373-374
Fairs and Religious Gatherings,	374
Medical Charities and Dispensaries,	374-376
INDEX,	377-387

ERRATA *et* ADDENDA.

Page 63, in table, *for* 'Bedángá' *read* 'Beldángá.'
Page 97, line 13; *insert* 'Vol. I.'

I shall be grateful for any corrections or suggestions which occur to the reader. They may be addressed to me, care of the Secretary to the Bengal Government, Calcutta.

INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

THE local weights and measuresare given in detail at pp. 113-114, and 309. In some instances in the following volume, these weights and measures have been converted into their English equivalents, and the native names have not been added. In such cases the reconversion from the English equivalents may be effected with sufficient accuracy in accordance with the following tables:—

MONEY.

1 pie ($\frac{1}{192}$ of an ánná) = $\frac{1}{2}$ farthing.
1 pice ($\frac{1}{4}$ of an ánná) = 1$\frac{1}{2}$ farthings.
1 ánná ($\frac{1}{16}$ of a rupee) = 1$\frac{1}{2}$ pence.

The rupee is worth, according to the rate of exchange, from 1s. 8d. to 2s.; but for conventional conversions it is taken at 2s.

WEIGHTS.

The unit of weight is the ser (seer), which varies in different Districts from about 1$\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. to 2·205 lbs. This latter is the standard ser as fixed by Government, and corresponds to the metrical kilogramme. For local calculations in Lower Bengal, the recognised ser may be taken at 2 lbs. The conversion of Indian into English weights would then be as follows:—

1 chhaták ($\frac{1}{16}$ of a ser) = 2 oz.
1 ser ($\frac{1}{40}$ of a maund) = 2 lbs.
1 man or maund (say) = 82 lbs.

LAND MEASURE.

The unit of land measure is the bighá, which varies from $\frac{1}{3}$ of an acre to almost 1 acre. The Government standard bighá is 14,400 square feet, or say $\frac{1}{3}$ of an acre; and this bighá has been uniformly adopted throughout the following volume.

STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF THE

DISTRICT OF MURSHIDABAD.[1]

MURSHIDABAD District was, until 1875, a portion of the Division or Commissionership of Rájsháhí; but in that year it was transferred to the Presidency Division, of which it now forms the north-western corner. It is situated between 23° 43′ 15″ and 24° 52′ 0″ north latitude, and 87° 39′ 5″ and 88° 16′ 55″ east longitude. The area, exclusive of the larger rivers, is 2462·44

[1] This Account of Murshidábád District has been compiled chiefly from the following sources:—(1) The answers to my five series of questions, signed by Mr. Hankey, C.S., the Collector, by Mr. Jeffery, C.S., Assistant Magistrate, and by Bábu Bankim Chandra Chattarji, Deputy-Collector, dated 1870-71; (2) Statistical and Geographical Report of Murshidábád District, by the Revenue Surveyor, Captain (now Colonel) Gastrell, dated 1857; (3) Report on the Rivers of Bengal, by Captain W. S. Sherwill (Calcutta, 1858); (4) Report on the Bengal Census of 1872, by Mr. Beverley, C.S., with subsequent District Compilation by Mr. Magrath, C.S.; (5) Report on the Land Tenures of the District, by Bábu Bankim Chandra Chattarji, Deputy-Collector, dated October 1873; (6) Statement of the prevailing Rates of Rent in the District, drawn up by Mr. Wavell, C.S., officiating Collector, and dated August 1872; (7) An article in the *Calcutta Review* (vol. vi.) on 'The Banks of the Bhágirathí,' by the Rev. J. Long; (8) Selections from Records of the Government of India, edited by the Rev. J. Long; (9) MS. Records of the Board of Revenue at Calcutta, from 1782 to 1807; (10) Stewart's *History of Bengal* (Calcutta reprint, 1847); (11) Mill's *History of British India* (quarto, 1817); (12) Orme's *Military History of the British in Hindustán* (Madras reprint, 1861); (13) *Travels of a Hindu*, by Bábu Bholanáth Chandra; (14) Resolution of the Bengal Government on the Boat Traffic of Bengal, dated October 1875; (15) Annual Reports on the Administration of Bengal, 1871–1874; (16) Selections from Annual Administration Reports by the Collector, 1871–73; (17) Annual Reports on the Police of the Lower Provinces, 1872–74; (18) Annual Reports on the Jails of the Lower Provinces, 1872–1874, with statistics for earlier years, specially prepared by the Inspector-General; (19) Annual Reports of the Educational Department for 1856-57, 1860-61, 1870-74; (20) Postal Statistics,

square miles, as returned by the Boundary Commissioner in 1874. The total population, as ascertained by the Census of 1872, is 1,353,626 souls. For the purposes of the Census, the area was taken at 2578 square miles; and out of regard to uniformity, this figure has been adopted for the calculation of all averages in this Account. The Civil Station and the Administrative Headquarters are at Barhampur (Berhampore), situated on the left bank of the Bhágirathí river, in 24° 6′ 30″ north latitude and 88° 17′ 31″ east longitude. Barhampur is also the site of long-established military cantonments, and was until 1875 the headquarters of the Commissioner of the Rájsháhí Division. The largest town, however, in the District is the city of Murshidábád, the latest Muhammadan capital of Bengal and still the residence of the Nawáb, which lies on the same bank of the Bhágirathí, some five miles farther up the river, in 24° 11′ 5″ north latitude and 88° 18′ 50″ east longitude.

BOUNDARIES.—The District of Murshidábád is bounded along its whole frontier from the extreme north to the south-east by the Ganges, which separates it from the Districts of Maldah and Rájsháhí. On the south it is bounded by the Districts of Nadiyá and Bardwán, the river Jalangí forming the south-eastern frontier for a considerable distance. To the east lie the Districts of Bírbhúm and the Santál Parganás.

CHANGES IN JURISDICTION.—As enclosing in its centre the metropolitan city of Murshidábád, this tract of country rose into importance towards the close of the Muhammadan rule in Bengal. For some time, also, after the acquisition of the *díwání* by the East India Company, the entire administration was suffered to remain in the hands of the Musalmán officials. The English Governor of Bengal always lived at Calcutta, but a Resident was stationed at Murshidábád, to be present at the *darbár* of the Nawáb, and to control the finances of the whole of Bengal. The British obtained the *díwání* in 1765, and in 1772 Warren Hastings removed the Supreme Civil and Criminal Courts to Calcutta. After an experience of three years, the

furnished by the Director-General of Post Offices; (21) Area, latitudes, and longitudes, furnished by the Surveyor-General; (22) Parganá Statistics of Bengal, printed by the Board of Revenue; (23) The answers to my series of medical questions, signed by J. White, M.D., Civil Surgeon; (24) Annual Meteorological Reports of Bengal for 1871 and 1872; (25) Annual Reports on the Charitable Dispensaries of Bengal for 1871 and 1872; (26) A MS. compilation on the Díwání of Murshidábád, by Mr. Gribble, C.S.; (27) Various numbers of the *Calcutta Gazette;* (28) Aitchison's *Treaties and Engagements relating to India.*

tribunal of criminal justice was re-transferred to Murshidábád; and it was not till 1790, under Lord Cornwallis, that both the supreme revenue and criminal jurisdictions were ultimately fixed at the present capital of India. The importance of the District of Murshidábád declined with the decay of its chief city. In the beginning, its area included not only the present District, but also the neighbouring *zamíndáris* of Bírbhúm and Bishnupur. In August 1783, the records of the Board of Revenue contain a letter from the Chief of Murshidábád, in which he complains of 'the lessened consequence of his present station, owing to his power being circumscribed and his very limited charge of collections.' He requests that 'the city and environs of the city of Murshidábád may be placed under his authority, and that the amount of his collections may be made equal to that of his disbursements, in order to make his official situation respectable.' In 1785 the Collector of Murshidábád declared that the lawless condition of Bírbhúm had grown beyond the control of the civil power, and petitioned for troops to act against the armed banditti. The border principalities of Bírbhúm and Bishnupur were finally severed from their connection with Murshidábád, and formed into one independent District in 1787. Other considerable changes appear to have taken place at the same time. In 1786, Mr. Dawson, then Chief of Murshidábád, complained that 'it is so changed from what it formerly was, that had I all the plans that at various times have been made thereof before me, it would be difficult to point out with any degree of accuracy my mutilated Chiefship, so intersected it is and interspersed.' The former pre-eminence of Murshidábád came to be so far forgotten, that in 1806 it seems to have been proposed to do away with its existence altogether as a separate Collectorate. The office of Judge and Magistrate of the District of Murshidábád was for the time abolished, but in the end 'it was deemed unadvisable to transfer the collections of Murshidábád to the charge of the Collector of Bírbhúm.' The result of these many changes was to cause innumerable discrepancies between the areas comprised under the revenue and the criminal jurisdiction. The revenue area depended upon the position of the old *parganás*, which continued to pay their revenue into the former treasury, however subdivided and scattered they might become. The area of the criminal jurisdiction was determined simply by motives of administrative convenience. The necessity that was felt for the more effectual suppression of crime in remote parts of the District, led to those portions being placed under

the control of a magistrate nearer at hand than at Murshidábád. The difficulties caused by these anomalies of jurisdiction have continued almost up to the present day, being chiefly encountered on the southern and western frontiers of the District. The Deputy-Collector thus described the state of affairs in 1870:—'The boundary-line to the west is most confused, lands belonging to one District being frequently found within the boundary of another. In fact, boundary-line on this side there is none. The question whether a particular village belongs to Murshidábád or to Bírbhúm has often to be decided by a reference to the Survey Records.' The Revenue Surveyor (1857) stated that he had found in Murshidábád, lands belonging to estates that paid revenue to the Collectorates of Dacca and the 24 Parganás. The Deputy-Collector has furnished a list of no less than 18 *parganás*, which were (1870) altogether beyond the civil and magisterial jurisdiction of Murshidábád, but in which most of the villages were subject to its fiscal jurisdiction. It has not been thought worth while to reproduce that catalogue in this place, for in the year 1872 important rectifications of frontier were effected between Murshidábád and Bírbhúm, and the old sources of perplexity have now been removed. In 1863, as notified in the *Calcutta Gazette* of that year, vol. ii. p. 2016, thirty-four villages were transferred from Nadiyá to Murshidábád, and the southern boundary of the District now runs to the south of the following villages:—Bidhupárá, Loknáthpur, Ekdálá, Síbnagar, Nazírpur, Andulbáriá, Dakáliápotá, and Báli.

The present revenue jurisdictions were determined by a notification of Government, dated 11th February 1875, and published in the *Calcutta Gazette* of the 24th of that month. The north-eastern, eastern, and south-eastern boundaries were fixed by the flowing streams of the Ganges or Padma and the Jalangí; and such villages of the District of Maldah as lie to the right bank of the Ganges were transferred to Murshidábád. The boundaries on the south were also simplified. But the most extensive change was made on the west, where thirty-nine villages were transferred to Murshidábád from the *parganás* of Swarúpsinh, Sherpur, and Rokanpur, in the District of Bírbhúm, and seven villages from the *parganá* of Kánkjol in the District of the Santál Parganás. In the same notification, the jurisdictions of the several *thánás* or police divisions which compose the District of Murshidábád were more particularly defined. By a notification, dated 30th October 1875, and published in the

Calcutta Gazette for the 10th November, further changes were made on the western frontier. No less than 170 villages, lying for the most part in *parganás* Barbaksinh, Bihrol, Kutabpur, Kásipur, Fathisinh, Sháhjahánpur, Alínagar, Swarúpsinh, Mohanpur, Bhátsálá, Khargrám, Gopínáthpur, Kátgarh, Sherpur, Sháhzádpur, were transferred from Murshidábád to the District of Bírbhúm.

GENERAL PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The District of Murshidábád naturally divides itself into two almost equal portions, which, in their geology, their agriculture, and even the religion of their inhabitants, form a striking contrast to each other. The river Bhágirathí, which intersects the District nearly due north and south, marks the boundary between these two halves. The tract to the west of this river is locally known as the Rárh, and the tract to the east as the Bágri,—names which recall the old fivefold division of Bengal under the Hindu kings of Gaur. The western tract, or the Rárh, is substantially a continuation of the sub-Vindhyan region of hard clay and nodular limestone. The land is high and slightly undulating, being interspersed with numerous *bíls* and beds of old rivers. The north-western corner has the greatest elevation; and there are places where the limits of this clayey tract are marked by banks or bluffs, fifteen and twenty feet high. The soil is greyish or reddish, mixed with lime and oxide of iron; and beds of nodular limestone (*kankar*) are to be seen scattered here and there. The rivers in this part, being hill torrents, are liable to sudden freshets, but they never lay the entire country under water for any long space of time. The fields, therefore, do not possess the extraordinary fertility of a deltaic country. They rarely produce more than one crop in the year, and that crop is the *áman* or winter rice, which is not dependent upon early rain for a successful harvest, but requires a steady downfall between July and October. It may further be noticed that the Census has disclosed the curious circumstance, that in all the western *thánás* or police circles the Hindus greatly outnumber the Muhammadans. The eastern tract, or the Bágri, differs in no material respect from the ordinary alluvial plains of Eastern Bengal. It lies almost entirely between the Bhágirathí, Ganges, and Jalangí rivers, and in addition, is permeated by several other offshoots of the great river. The whole area lies low, and is exposed to annual inundations, which occasionally are so severe as to cause widespread suffering, but usually do no more than deposit a top-dressing of inexhaustible

fertility. In variety of crops, this portion of the District is not surpassed by any part of Bengal, but the *áus* or early rice crop forms the great staple of agriculture. A second or cold-weather crop is also yielded by most of the fields. For these two harvests early rains are wanted in April and May, and some rain again in the cold weather. In the whole of this tract, with some unimportant exceptions, it has been found that the number of Muhammadans exceeds that of the Hindus. The aspect of the Rárh is one of great dreariness, as compared with the remainder of the District, or with lower Bengal generally. Vegetation is less luxuriant, and during the dry season everything becomes parched up and leafless. The following description is given by a native revenue assessor employed in the country: —'In February not a vestige of verdure meets the eye. Cattle at this season generally subsist on dry stalks of straw. Horses are fed on the vegetation which here and there grows on the surface of stagnant pools. No underwood covers the ground, and, as a matter of course, great difficulty is experienced in procuring fuel. Bamboos are very scarce.' The boundary between the Rárh and the Bágri is most distinctly marked towards the north-west. Here there may be seen a bank of stiff clay, gravel, and nodular limestone, about fifteen or twenty feet above the low land. Towards the south the bank is less clearly defined, and soon vanishes altogether, as the heavy ferruginous soil of Bírbhúm blends imperceptibly with the low and recent alluvium.

This twofold division of Murshidábád is not only of importance as stamping a distinct character upon the two portions of the District, but is still more valuable as furnishing a clue to the early history of Bengal. There can hardly be a doubt that the present Bhágirathí represents the old channel of the Ganges, by which the greater part of the waters of the sacred river were formerly brought down to the sea. The most ancient traditions, the traces of ruined cities, and the indelible record of names, all lead to this conclusion. The geological evidence just adduced proves to demonstration that the nature of the soil could never have permitted the Ganges to have flowed farther to the east than the present course of the Bhágirathí, which is thus fixed as the limit of the Bengal delta, and the ancient means of communication with the interior. The above suggestions are chiefly taken from Captain Sherwill's Report on the Rivers of Bengal, dated February 1857, in which that officer pointed out the historical importance and the practical teaching

to be derived from a proper consideration of the geology of Murshidábád District.

HILLS.—There are no mountains or hill ranges in the District. The whole of the portion to the west of the Bhágirathí lies at a considerable elevation; and towards the north-west there are eight small detached hillocks, which are stated by Colonel Gastrell, the Revenue Surveyor, to be of basaltic formation. The highest of them, called Mathur Kálí Páhárí, is not more than thirty feet above the level of the surrounding country, but is, of course, considerably more than this above the sea. Their base is surrounded with stony jungle land, and they are themselves covered with thick brushwood. On two of them grow *sál* and *mahuá* trees.

RIVER SYSTEM.—The river system of Murshidábád is composed of the Ganges and its offshoots and tributaries. The Ganges itself merely forms the eastern boundary of the District, and nowhere intersects it; but on the Bhágirathí, which is thought to be the oldest channel of the great river, centre all the trade and historical importance of the District. The Ganges is the only river which is navigable throughout the year for large native boats of 100 *maunds* burden, or say four tons. During the rainy season the Bhágirathí and the Jalangí can easily float boats of these dimensions, but in the hot weather they now dwindle away till they become fordable at many points. The following three rivers are also navigable for boats of 50 *maunds* (or say two tons) burden during the rains,—the Singá, the Bánsloi, and the Dwarká.

THE GANGES, or Padma, as it is called in this part of its course, first touches Murshidábád District at its extreme northern point, and then flows in a direction which is almost due south-east, forming the eastern boundary of the District, and dividing it from Maldah and Rájsháhí. The only tributary of any importance which it receives from the west is the Singá, which effects a junction with it about ten miles from the spot where it first touches the District. The Singá enters the District from the Santál Parganás at Adwaitápur, and just below Ankurá factory divides into two branches; of these the one falls into the Ganges near Nayán Sukh, and the other at Dhulián. The offshoots of the Ganges on its western or right bank comprise the Bhágirathí, the Bhairab, the Siálmárí, and the Jalangí. The fall of the Ganges is about nine inches per mile, but the windings of the river are so great as to reduce this estimate by about one-half. The current varies from about three miles an hour

in the cold weather to at least double that rate during the rains. In particular spots, as, for instance, where the stream rushes round some projecting point, this rate of motion is exceeded, and boats and steamers find great difficulty in making their way against the current. The rise of water in the main channel between the middle of May and the middle of August is as much as thirty-two feet. The average depth during the dry season is about thirty feet. The main current was formerly in the northern side of the bed, but it is now (1872) changing towards the southern or Murshidábád side. The banks of the Ganges are composed of sand, and shift year by year. They are highly cultivated wherever practicable.

THE BHAGIRATHI branches off from the Ganges at Chhápghátí, not far from the policé station of Sutí. Its course, which is very winding, is almost due south; and it finally leaves the District below the village of Bidhupárá, just north of the celebrated battle-field of Plassey. As has been already said, it divides the District into two almost equal portions, and on its banks, chiefly on the eastern or left bank, are situated all the historical and wealthy towns of the District. At Jangipur it receives from the west the united waters of the Bánsloi and Páglá rivers; and near Saktipur, the Chorá Dekrá, a considerable branch of the Dwarká river, flows into it, also from the west. The banks of the Bhágirathí are usually gently sloping on the one side, and abruptly shelving on the other. These changes of slope are due to the varying set of the current, and occur on the same bank by regular alternations from reach to reach. The bed of the river is sandy, mixed with clay and a little Ganges silt; and in some places there are numerous pebbles brought down by the hill streams from the west.

THE BHAIRAB AND THE SIÁLMARI are two offshoots from the Ganges, which branch out towards the south nearly opposite the town of Rámpur Beauleah on the Rájsháhí side of the river. They both empty themselves, after a very circuitous course, into the Jalangí; the Bhairab at Madhupur, and the Siálmárí below the Kapilá factory.

THE JALANGI is another and much more important branch of the Ganges, which nowhere intersects Murshidábád District. It leaves the parent stream a short distance above the police station of Jalangí, and flows in a south-westerly direction, with many windings, until it finally leaves the District with an abrupt turn near the village of Báli. During this part of its course it forms the boundary of the

Districts of Murshidábád and Nadiyá. As a channel for navigation it is hardly of less importance than the Bhágirathí. A full account of the elaborate measures adopted by Government for keeping open the channels of these two rivers will be found in the Statistical Account of Nadiyá, pp. 19-32.

THE BANSLOI is the most considerable tributary of the Bhágirathí. It enters the District from the Santál Parganás not far from the town of Mahespur, and, flowing by the police station of Palsá, pursues on the whole an easterly course, until it falls into the Bhágirathí opposite the large commercial town of Jangipur.

THE DWARKA or BABLA is a moderate-sized stream, which wanders, under several names and with many tributaries and effluents, throughout the south-western corner of Murshidábád. That channel which is considered the main stream, and which bears the name of Dwarká, enters the District from Bírbhúm not far from Margrám. At first it flows in an easterly direction, until its waters are augmented by those of the Bráhminí at Rám Chandrapur. It then turns towards the south-east and intercepts the Mor and the Kuiyá, two rivers which also flow down from Bírbhúm towards the Bhágirathí. Here commence the numerous backwaters and side channels which connect it with the Bhágirathí, and cause great confusion by the changes of name which they occasion. The Banká and the Chorá Dekrá are the two most important of these lines of junction. The main stream continues to flow nearly parallel to the Bhágirathí, and quits the District at Raghupur. This river is navigable for the greater portion of its course, and its frequent points of connection with the Bhágirathí render it a very convenient means of communication.

Among minor rivers may be mentioned the Bráhminí, the Mor or Maurakhi or Káná, and the Kuiyá, which all flow from the west into the Dwarká, and are partially navigable at the height of the rainy season. The Bráhminí enters the District at Gopálpur, near the boundary between the Santál Parganás and Bírbhúm. The Mor and the Kuiyá both come from Bírbhúm, the former entering Murshidábád at Maruá, and the latter at Sháhbazpur. The beds of all these hill streams are of a yellow clay, and pebbly.

Colonel Gastrell, the Revenue Surveyor, states that 'all the rivers of the District are liable to overflow their banks during the rains, and would annually flood the country if it were not for the numerous embankments (*bandhs*) which are maintained in all parts of the

District, some by the Government and some by the *zamíndárs*. Accidents to these *bandhs* frequently occur; but great as is the immediate injury caused by such accidents, it is not unaccompanied by compensations. Fresh and rich deposits are brought in by the inundation waters, fertilizing and raising the soil, and greatly benefiting the crop. The reverse effect, however, is sometimes produced. A layer of sand may impoverish what was before rich soil.' In the western part of the District the inundations are not of the same character as in the east. 'The rivers partake more or less of the nature of hill torrents, and are subject to sudden and dangerous floods. They often rise from a few feet in depth, overtop their banks, and flood the country, in a single night; their fall being as rapid as their rise.'

CHANGES IN RIVER COURSES.—The District of Murshidábád, as standing at the head of the great Gangetic delta, affords a striking example of the grand operations of nature produced by fluvial action. There can be no doubt that the present channel of the Bhágirathí, with its sacred traditions and ruined cities, marks the ancient course of the Ganges; and it is equally clear that the clayey high lands on the right bank of this river must always have prevented the Ganges from trending any farther towards the west. That portion, however, of the District which lies between the Bhágirathí and the present stream of the Ganges has been the scene of most important river changes within historical times; nor have the causes which produced these changes yet abated their energy. The whole of this area is deeply scored with traces of old river beds, which represent the various channels scooped out by the waters of the Ganges during the period when they were gradually being diverted to their present course. Captain Sherwill, in his Report on the Rivers of Bengal, quotes an extract from a letter written by the French traveller Tavernier in 1666, which proves that the silting up of the channel of the Bhágirathí had then already commenced:—

'*Janvier* 6, 1666.

'Le 6 estant arrivé à un gros bourg appellé Donapour à six costes de Raje-mehale, j'y laissay Monsieur Bernier qui alloit à Casembazar et de la à Ogouli par terre, parceque quand la rivière est basse, on ne peut passer à cause du grand banc de sable qui est devant une ville appellée Soutique.'—*Tavernier's Voyages in India.*

This is the earliest mention in history of the silting up of the Bhágirathí. There is, however, another tradition, quoted with

apparent acquiescence in Stewart's *History of Bengal* (ed. 1847, p. 323): 'Siráj ud Daulá, fearing lest the English should in their warships pass up the Ganges to the east and north of the Kásimbázár island, and so down the Bhágirathí to Murshidábád, caused immense piles to be driven into the river at Sutí, by which the navigation of the Bhágirathí has been closed except for boats, and is only open for them during half the year.'

'If the state of the river,' continues Captain Sherwill, 'was so bad 200 years ago, what would it have been now, had it not been taken in hand by the English Government? *Bandhás*, or lanes formed of mats and bamboos, are erected in the shallows, to induce the narrowed stream to scour out for itself a deeper passage, and the channel is cleared of sunken trees and timber rafts; but the river remains unnavigable for eight months of the year.' During the rainy season, the freshets from the Ganges still come down the Bhágirathí; but their permanent influence is obliterated by the large deposits of mud which they bring with them, and also by the vast quantity of dry soil that is blown over the river every year by the hot winds from the western high lands. In addition to these causes, it is most important to recollect that the general line of drainage in the District of Murshidábád, is not from north to south along the channel of the Bhágirathí, but from north-west to south-east. The result is, in the first place, that the main waters of the Ganges display a greater inclination to proceed in their present channel than to strike into the Bhágirathí; and, secondly, that the floods of the Bhágirathí have always a tendency to overflow its left or eastern bank, and wander over the country in the old river beds towards the Jalangí river. The surplus water never finds an exit to the westward, over the right bank.

The larger river, the Ganges or Padma, is working its changes by a constant alternation of alluvion and diluvion. During the rainy season, the current impinges with immense weight upon banks composed of loose soil, which are rapidly undermined. An acre of ground has been known to have been swept away in half an hour. Large islands are continually rising in the channel, some of them many miles in length. In the next year, perhaps, they become covered with grass and tamarisk jungle higher than an elephant. Captain Sherwill states that he has seen such islands 'become inhabited, cleared, and cultivated; the population increases, large villages start up; the land revenue is collected for ten or twelve years;

and then the whole fabric will disappear within one rainy reason.' The Deputy-Collector reported, in 1870, that the largest of these *chars*, as they are called, was the Bághdángá island, which covered an extent of 20,000 *bighás*, or more than ten square miles. In the neighbourhood of this island, the Ganges has receded at least four miles during the past century. The battle-field of Gheriá, where the Nawáb Mír Kásim Alí Khán made his last stand against the English, was at that time on the brink of the river. Colonel Gastrell, the Revenue Surveyor, states that 'it is now (1857) some miles distant; but every year of late has seen the river coming back to its old channel.' The town of Sutí, which stands near the head of the Bhágirathí, was half swept away by the inundations of 1856; and the Bhágirathí now leaves the Ganges at Chhápghátí, about ten miles below its former point of exit. During the rainy season of 1870, the Nurpur factory, which in 1857 was about four miles from the Ganges, was completely washed away, and the village of the same name partly destroyed. The remaining houses had to be abandoned.

None of the rivers in the District of Murshidábád are subject to the influence of the tides, nor do any of them expand into lakes. The Ganges is the only river which is not fordable at any time during the year. None of them enter the earth by a subterraneous course; but it has been observed that, during the dry weather, the rivers in the eastern half of the District are partly supplied by infiltration from the Ganges. Where that river is broad, and the *chars* are large, the volume of discharge is sensibly affected by the portion of the stream which thus passes away through the sand. The soil of the river banks has already been described. They are for the most part well cultivated.

Lakes and Marshes.—Many small lakes or lagoons (commonly termed *bíls* or *jhils*) exist in the District. The largest is the Telkar *bíl*, situated a few miles to the west of the civil station of Barhampur. It is about 3 miles long by $2\frac{3}{4}$ broad. The Bhándárdaha *bíl* is also situated in the eastern portion of the District. To the west of the Bhágirathí are the Belun, Sakorá, and Pálan *bíls*, which lie close together near Khárgaon, about three miles to the south of the junction of the Bráhminí and Dwarká rivers. These appear to be identical with 'the Bishnupur swamp,' which, according to the MS. Records of the Board of Revenue, was artificially connected with the river, at the expense of Government, in the year 1800. All these *bíls* are joined to the rivers by streams and low *kháls*, and are each of a good

size during the hot season, but during the rains form one large sheet of water. The Nawárangá, Saulmárí, and Sálukuriá *bíls*, together with other small marshes at the union of the Mor and Kuiyá with the Dwarká, also form during the rainy season a large lake, about twenty miles square. Colonel Gastrell, the Revenue Surveyor, remarks that 'these large *bíls* at the confluences of the hill streams serve during the floods as natural drainage basins, into which the river waters pour. On the subsidence of the rise in the streams, the waters pent up in the *bíls* find their way back again into the rivers gradually and quietly, and are thus drained off. But for these large reservoirs, the southern part of the Rárh would be much injured by floods from the hills.'

In the Rárh or western half of the District, there are two very large artificial tanks. The one is the Ságar Dighí, situated near the line of railway from Nalhátí to Azímganj, not far from the latter town. The other is called Ramná Shaikh Dighí.

There are no CANALS of any importance in the District. The Chutor, in the south-western corner, appears to be an embanked artificial channel.

THE LOSS OF LIFE BY DROWNING, so far as reported to the police, during the years 1862-1867, was 666, which would give an average for those six years of 111.

RIVER TRAFFIC.—There are several towns in Murshidábád which conduct a thriving trade on the Ganges and Bhágirathí. Bhagwángolá on the Ganges, in the *tháná* or police circle of the same name, is a depôt for indigo seed brought down by water from Upper Bengal. It is strictly a river town, being entirely dependent upon its trade, and shifting its position every season according to the varying level of the stream. During the rains, when the Ganges overflows the low lands lying beneath the permanent town, boats discharge or take in their cargo there. On the subsiding of the waters, a village immediately springs up on the low land at the river's edge, at which the native boats now touch. It is called Alátalí or New Bhagwángolá. Dhulián is the only other town on the Ganges with river trade. On the Bhágirathí are situated Jangipur, with its suburb of Raghunáthganj, and Jiáganj, which forms one town with Azímganj on the opposite side of the river. At Dhulián and Jangipur are mercantile communities engaged in river traffic. The imports comprise tobacco, oil-seeds, sugar, *ghí*, wheat, and gram, and occasionally rafts of timber from the upper Provinces. Jangipur also sends out

silk. The Deputy-Collector reported in 1870 that the commerce of these river towns was being fast absorbed by the railway. Jiágan̐j is the most considerable mercantile place in the District. It is the residence of numerous *mahájans* (native merchants), who deal chiefly in cotton, saltpetre, sugar, rice, and silk. Since the opening of the railways, the river-borne traffic of the District has largely fallen off. A steamer on the Bhágirathí has become an unusual sight; but even now, during the rains, native craft of all sizes, and of every imaginable rig, cover the surface of this river. The commonest names for these native boats are *ulakh*, *chuprá-ulakh*, *bhar*, *holá*, and *palwár*. Occasionally also a large raft of timber, bearing a tiny village, goes drifting past, on its way to Calcutta from the mountains of Nepál. In the Census of 1872, the number of boats in the District enumerated was 1592, of which total considerably more than one-half were in the Subdivision of Jangipur. Further details concerning the river traffic of the District, together with the latest statistics, will be given subsequently under the heading Commerce and Trade.

USES OF THE WATER SUPPLY.—It is not known that any of the rivers or streams in the District are utilized as a motive power for turning mills or in other ways. The Collector reports that the fall in the Bánsloi river is amply sufficient to permit of its being so applied, but only in the rainy season. In the western part of the District, the waters of the *bíls*, rivers, and tanks are extensively used for the purposes of irrigation. In the eastern part of the District this is not so much the case, for the annual inundations of the great rivers supply sufficient moisture for the crops. A full description of the processes of irrigation resorted to will be found on a later page in connection with Agriculture.

FISHERIES, FISHING COMMUNITIES, AND FISH.—The fisheries in Murshidábád District are not so profitable as might be expected from the extent of its water area. A considerable quantity of the fish consumed in the city of Murshidábád is regularly imported from Maldah and other parts. The Ganges abounds in fish at all times of the year, and on its banks reside a large number of fishermen. The Bhágirathí and the Jalangí furnish their principal supply during the rainy season. Among confined waters, the Bhándárdaha *bíl* is most plentifully stocked with fish; but the Telkar and other *bíls* also give employment to a considerable fishing population. In the Bhándárdaha and Saulá *bíls*, and in the Mutí *jhil*, there is found a

species of mussel (Unio), which occasionally contains pearls; but they are not plentiful, nor of good size or colour. Some wealthy members of the Jain community have taken leases of extensive fisheries in the Bhágirathí, in order to prevent the fish from being caught. It is impossible to present even an approximate estimate of the collective value of the fisheries. The Deputy-Collector was only able to furnish the following figures:—A rent of £310 a year was paid some time ago by the farmer of Bhándárdaha *bíl*; the total rent paid to Government by the farmers of all the Government fisheries in the District amounts to £98 per annum. In the villages that line the banks of the rivers and the *bíls*, a considerable proportion of the inhabitants live by the fish they catch. In Bálighát on the Bhágirathí, opposite Jangipur, out of 304 families, the Deputy-Collector estimates that about 70 are supported in this way. On the whole, he conjectures that 1 per cent. of the population in the Subdivision of Jangipur live by fishing, and about the same all along the Ganges and the Jalangí; but in the north-west and south-west of the District this proportion is not maintained. The Census of 1872 gives the total number of Hindus who belong to the boating and fishing castes at only 26,100, which is 3·56 of the entire Hindu population. To this total there should be added the number of Muhammadan fishermen; and it must be borne in mind that the Musalmán element, though in a slight minority in the entire District, greatly predominates in those tracts which border on the Ganges. It seems probable, therefore, that the conjecture of the Deputy-Collector is below the actual truth.

The following list of fish found in Murshidábád District is taken from a special report on the subject by the Commissioner of Rájsháhí Division, dated September 1872:—River fishes—(1) *Air*, (2) *báchá*, (3) *bagháir*, (4) *baliá*, (5) *baus*, (6) *bátá*, (7) *batkiá*, (8) *bhangná*, (9) *bhedá*, (10) *boáil*, (11) carp, (12) *chandá*, (13) *chelá*, (14) *chingrí* or *boro ichá*, (15) *ching* or *chingurás*, (16) *chitál*, (17) *darí*, (18) *dánkoná*, (19) *dhaí* or *silim*, (20) eel or *baim*, (21) *gágar*, (22) *gárí*, (23) *hilsá*, (24) *ichá* or *boro chingrí*, (25) *karti*, (26) *kátá*, (27) *katlá*, (28) *kharsán*, (29) *kharsolá*, (30) *khayrá*, (31) *mágur*, (32) *matrá*, (33) *mirgál*, (34) *mayá* or *maurallá*, (35) *pábdá*, (36) *pangás*, (37) *piulí*, (38) *punthí*, (39) *rithá*, (40) *ruhí*, (41) *saul*, (42) *sankoch* or *sankar*, (43) *tengrá*, (44) *urát*. Tank fishes,—(1) *Air*, (2) *boáil*, (3) *chitál*, (4) *ching*, (5) *chingrí*, (6) *dánkoná*, (7) *gágar*, (8) *guchí*, (9) *halangá*, (10) *katlá*, (11) *khalisá*, (12) *khayrá*, (13) *kai*, (14) *kunchá*,

(15) *mágur*, (16) *mayá*, (17) *mírgál*, (18) *phauluí*, (19) *punthí*, (20) *ruhí*, (21) *saul*, (22) *tengrá*.

MARSH PRODUCTS, ETC.—It is not known whether there are at present any embankments in Murshidábád District whose direct object is the furtherance of cultivation. There was formerly a small embankment along a portion of the Ganges near Khámrá, but it has now been abandoned, apparently because the level of the land which it protected has been sufficiently raised. The important embankments along the left bank of the Bhágirathí, to keep back the annual floods of that river, will be described on a subsequent page in connection with the preventive measures against Natural Calamities.

The edges and beds of the numerous *bíls* and *nálás*, as the waters dry up, are cultivated to the furthest extent. The long sloping banks of the *nálás* and *kháls* yield good crops of mustard, wheat, and other grains. In the vicinity of the *bíls*, *boro* rice, a coarse-grained, red variety, is largely sown. With the advance of the dry weather, this is transplanted into the marsh lands, and afterwards harvested in the end of March or April. The Deputy-Collector is of opinion that a great deal might be done without much expense, by means of drainage, to render the swamps far more profitable. He instances the Bánsabáti *bíl*, which in the rains extends almost the whole way from Bálighát on the Bhágirathí to the hills of the Santál Parganás. In the hot weather the whole of this area is dry except a few low-lying spots, and these might easily be drained. He also mentions the Krishna Sáil, which is evidently the bed of an old river. There are still some very deep pools, but the greater part could be made fit for cultivation. In many of the *bíls* a process of natural reclamation is going on. Their beds are gradually being elevated, by mud washed down by the rivers and streams which pour into them during the rains, and by the dry soil which is blown over them during the season of the hot winds. The Deputy-Collector states that, owing to these causes, the margin of tillage has been observed of late years steadily to advance.

Reeds are occasionally produced on the borders of the marshes, but cane is not grown.

LONG-STEMMED RICE is occasionally grown in the marshes, but not to any very great extent. The Deputy-Collector states that it has been known to grow in water 15 or 18 feet deep; but he is not aware that any artificial increase has been effected in the length of

the stem. The following are the names for the four chief varieties: —(1) *Jhingásáil;* (2) *ajan;* (3) *bangatá;* (4) *bhusurí.*

LINES OF DRAINAGE.—The general inclination of the District is from north-west to south-east; but as the channels of the main rivers do not uniformly take this direction, the lines of drainage are somewhat irregular and perplexing. The western half of the District slopes eastwards toward the Bhágirathí; but the greater number of the hill streams do not find their way directly into that river, but are intercepted by the *bíls,* and for the most part carried off to the south by the Dwarká river. The two chief drainage basins (if such they can be called) in this part of the District are that of the Bánsloi in the north, and that of the Dwarká with its confluents in the south. The use of the large *bíls,* in acting as reservoirs to break the violence of the floods of these hill streams, has already been mentioned. The *bíls* also serve to drain the surrounding country, and discharge their surplus water through the streams which issue out of them. The eastern half of the District may be described as an isosceles triangle with its apex to the north-west, whose equal sides are formed by the Ganges and the Bhágirathí, and whose base is almost closed by the Jalangí. The line of drainage is not along any of these rivers, but might be represented by a line intersecting the base at right angles. The local rainfall in this part of the District does not run off either into the Ganges or the Bhágirathí. In the same way the floods of these two great rivers converge towards each other, and ultimately make their way across the country in a south-easterly direction. It may roughly be stated that the greater part of the surplus water ultimately falls into the Jalangí by means of the Gobrá *nálá,* the Bhairab, and the Siálmárí. The south-east border of the District is in this way rendered extremely moist all the year through, and the effects produced are thus described by the Revenue Surveyor:—'These channels are during the rains connected with the different *bíls* and *kháls,* forming a network of water communication in this part of the District. In the hot weather, a great number of springs may be observed along their banks, caused apparently by the drainage waters percolating through the under-strata of sand and sandy soil.'

THE MINERAL PRODUCTS of the District are, of course, confined to the elevated tract in the west, and especially the north-west. There is no coal; but earth containing traces of iron is found in Palsá *thánd.* The character of all the soil in this neighbourhood

is ferruginous; but the ore is not worth smelting, owing to the very scanty portion of the metal which it contains. Beliá Náráyanpur, a large village on the right bank of the Páglá *nadí*, is described by the Revenue Surveyor in 1857 as being a market for iron ore. There were at that time sixty-two furnaces at work there, but the ore was all brought from the neighbouring District of Bírbhúm. Stone is also to be found in Palsá *tháná*, but the quality is not suitable for building purposes. The calcareous earth called *ghutin* is obtained in several parts of the *thánás* of Palsá and Mirzápur, and is extensively used for making lime. In the same localities, and generally over the whole of the Rárh or western half of the District, *kankar* or nodular limestone is found and applied to the purpose of road-making.

Forests and Wild Vegetable Products.—There is one *sál* forest in the District, called the Mohrapur forest, in the Palsá *tháná*. It is now the property of Jái Sankar Rái, who purchased it for £300. Besides timber, it yields *tasar* silk and beeswax. *Santámul* and *anantámul*, medicinal drugs of great repute, are also found in it; the latter of these is said to be an excellent substitute for sarsaparilla. In the west and north-west parts of the District, the lac insect has to a certain extent been domesticated on jute plants and the Butea frondosa. The people who rear it drive an extensive trade in lac. The tribes who earn their livelihood by trading in jungle products are mostly the Santáls and the Dhángars.

In the south-west of the District, at the confluence of the Mor and the Dwarká rivers, there is a tract of low-lying country, about sixteen square miles in area, known as the Hejál, which is used for pasturing cattle. During the rains it is covered with water, and produces *áus* and *boro* rice; but during the dry season the Goálás drive hither numerous herds of cattle. Besides the Hejál, there are numerous smaller spots of pasturage ground scattered over the District.

Feræ Naturæ.—Wild beasts are now very uncommon in the District of Murshidábád. The Revenue Surveyor, in 1857, gives the following information:—'Tigers are occasionally found in the hilly parts to the north-west, which have probably strayed from the Santál Parganás. Leopards, civet cats, and wild cats find cover in the jungles about the native villages. Rhinoceros have been seen in the north of the District; a few buffaloes still remain in the Nawárangá and Saulmárí *bíls*; and wild hog are found about the

different swamps and on the *chars* of the Ganges. All, however, are yearly becoming more and more scarce, and but little sport is now to be found in the District. The advance of cultivation is rapidly driving the wild animals away.' Monkeys of two sorts abound, especially in the Rárh or western half of the District. In the Rárh, also, several kinds of deer are found, among which are the spotted deer, the hog deer, and the antelope. These animals are hunted both for their meat and for their skins. The birds found in the District include the black and red partridge, quail, ortolan, snipe, plover, wild duck, wild goose, and several sorts of doves, at least two kinds of the parrot family, the fish-eagle, and many sorts of hawks, the common vulture, adjutant, herons, etc. To the list of fishes given on a previous page in connection with Fisheries (pp. 31, 32), may be added the Gangetic porpoise and the crocodile.

The average annual number of deaths from wild beasts during the years 1864–68 was 13; and the average number of deaths caused by snake-bite during the same period of five years was 222. In the year 1869-70 the sum of Rs. 19. 10. 0, or just under £2, was paid in rewards for the destruction of wild beasts; but no such rewards have ever been offered for keeping down venomous snakes.

Apart from the fisheries, and a small trade in deerskins carried on in the north-west, the *ferœ naturæ* do not contribute in any way to the wealth of the District.

POPULATION ESTIMATES PRIOR TO 1872.—It is hardly necessary to state that before the Census of 1872 there existed no trustworthy estimates of the population of Murshidábád District. The totals arrived at were formed, not by actual enumeration, but by some rough process of average calculations. The old figures, however, have a certain interest, though it would be most unsafe to use them for purposes of comparison with the results of the authoritative Census. The area of the District has not been altered during the present century to such an extent as to require any modification on this account. The Census Report by Mr. Beverley, C.S., p. 102, supplies the following information:—'In 1801, the population was estimated at 1,020,572 persons. In 1829, a tolerably accurate Census of the District was taken by Mr. H. V. Hathorn, the Magistrate. The results were as follow:—Hindus—males 268,148, females 269,162; total Hindus, 555,310: Muhammadans—males 216,478, females 196,344; total Muhammadans, 412,822: grand total 968,132. In 1837, Mr. Adam took a Census of the *tháná*

(police circle) of Daulatbázár, in the interior of the District, and found the population to be 62,037 souls. The population of this *tháná* is now only 45,779; but it is probable that the limits of its jurisdiction have been altered since Mr. Adam's time, as he found in it 183 towns and villages, whereas there are now only 135. The number of families is also 15 per cent. short of what it then was. In 1852-55, the District of Murshidábád was surveyed by Colonel Gastrell, the Revenue Surveyor. Its area was ascertained to be 2634 square miles, and the total number of houses and huts was 220,014. Allowing five souls to each dwelling, the population was returned at 1,100,070 souls.'

THE CENSUS OF 1872 was taken in Murshidábád on the night of the 15th January. The arrangements made beforehand and the agencies employed are described in the following report from the Magistrate (Census Report, pp. 18, 19):—

'The preliminary operations were as follow. A register showing the villages in the District was prepared in the form prescribed by the Inspector-General of Registration. This register was compiled from the Survey Registers and the maps in the office, which were, some on the inch-to-a-mile scale, some on the four-inches-to-a-mile scale. Extracts showing the villages in each *tháná* were then forwarded to the sub-inspectors of police, for inquiry as to their correctness; and any omissions or errors were rectified that the local knowledge of the sub-inspectors, or the local inquiries held by them, enabled them to make. The lists thus gradually became strictly accurate, and it is believed that not a village in the whole District has escaped enumeration. Having thus obtained an accurate account of all the inhabited land in the District, the next step was to appoint enumerators. Lists of the principal residents of each village were obtained through the police. In the *sadr* Subdivision, Bábu Bankim Chandra Chattarji, Deputy-Collector, by whom a considerable amount of work in connection with the Census was performed, personally ascertained, in some cases by visits to the interior, that the names given in the police lists were those of real head-men. This officer, also, and I myself, took advantage of our visits to the interior to explain to the people and to the enumerators the nature and object of the Census that was to be taken, and often succeeded in removing erroneous and mischievous notions that prevailed. *Parwánás* of appointment were issued to the enumerators, whose names had been thus obtained. To carry on

the preliminary operations, and to ensure greater accuracy, special supervisors were appointed to each *thánd*. These men went from village to village, conferring with the enumerators, testing their competency, instructing them in their duties, dividing villages into blocks, and providing for every place a suitable and competent staff of enumerators. While the enumerators were thus being carefully selected and trained to their work, returns were called for and obtained from them, showing the number of houses in each block; and the numbers thus obtained served to check and verify the numbers furnished by the police. Thus was obtained, first, a correct list of villages; and, secondly, a correct list of all houses in them.

'The agency employed in the Census consisted chiefly of the head-men of the village, and the *zamíndárs' gumáshtás*, most of whom have cheerfully and zealously done the work, and have done it without remuneration. In a few cases, where the villages in which the Census was to be taken did not furnish a single resident able to read and write, paid enumerators had to be sent from elsewhere. The total number of paid enumerators employed in the whole District, except in municipalities, was sixty. There are no indigenous institutions in the District which could have been used for the purpose of actually taking the Census, although, of course, the *chaukídárs* were made use of by the police for the purpose of preparing the lists of the various villages, and subsequently by the supervisors and enumerators to assist in pointing out houses, etc. The causes of the success which has, in my opinion, attended this first essay at taking a Census appear to me to be the following:—

'1st. The readiness generally evinced by the people to co-operate and assist. So far as the enumerators employed were the head-men of their respective villages, they may perhaps be considered as an indigenous institution; but in many cases the head-men of villages cannot read or write. The *gumáshtás* and other *zamíndárí* agents of all classes also afforded a great deal of assistance.

'2d. The efficient aid given by the police. The work was difficult and new, and was, as a rule, well done.

'3d. The appointment of numerous well-paid supervisors of intelligence, who were first trained to the work which they had to perform, and then sent throughout the tracts of country of which the supervision had been made over to them, to mix with the people, and explain as much as possible what was wanted.'

It is noticed in the Census Report, that there was a rumour in the District that the authorities intended to blow away the surplus population from guns.

The results of the Census disclosed a total population of 1,353,626 persons, residing in 303,561 houses and 3753 villages. The total area of the District was taken at 2578 square miles, showing (according to the calculations of the Census officers) the average density of the population to be 525 persons per square mile; the average population of each village, 361; and the average number of inmates per house, 4·5. 'The densest population is, as might be expected, to be found in those *thánás* which include the great towns and marts on the Bhágirathí. Bharatpur or Jamu-kándí, which borders on Bírbhúm and Bardwán, is also thickly inhabited. The rest of the District has probably nowhere more than 500 persons to the square mile; while over a large area north and east of Nalhátí, the average falls to 350.'

With regard to the accuracy of the Census, the Collector reported as follows:—'Considering that this is a first essay, I think that the general result of the Census may be pronounced to be as nearly accurate as it is possible to make it with an unpaid agency of village residents. As regards actual numbers, the results may, I think, be accepted as correct enough for practical purposes. The errors that do exist, relate to such matters as imperfect description of occupation or imperfect classification as to race. It requires a certain amount of education to know that all Musalmáns do not belong to the same race, or that all day-labourers cannot be said to follow the same occupation; and this extent of knowledge cannot always be expected from a village enumerator.'

The table on the two following pages gives the distribution of the population, arranged according to Subdivisions and *thánás* or police circles. The averages have been taken from the Census Report.

POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SEX AND AGE.—The total population of Murshidábád District consisted in 1872 of 645,335 males, and 708,291 females; total, 1,353,626. The proportion of males in the total population is 47·67 per cent. Classified according to age, the Census gives the following results:—Hindus—under twelve years of age, males 116,845, and females 98,212; above twelve years, males 233,450, and females 284,549. Muhammadans—under twelve years of age, males 116,246, and females 96,436;

[*Sentence continued on page* 41.

Abstract of the Population, Area, etc. of each Subdivision and Thana (Police Circle) in Murshidabad District, 1872.

Subdivision.	*Thánd* or Police Circle.	Area in Square Miles.	Number of Villages, Mauzás, or Townships.	Number of Houses.	Total Population.	Averages according to the Census Officers.				
						Persons per Sq. Mile.	Villages, Mauzás, or Townships per Sq. Mile.	Persons per Village, Mauzá, or Township.	Houses per Sq. Mile.	Persons per House.
Sadr or Headquarters Subdivision,	Sujáganj,	22	104	7,018	24,386	1,108	4·73	234	319	3·5
	Gorábázár,	24	15	2,694	15,194	633	·62	1,013	112	5·6
	Barwá,	112	147	16,860	75,963	678	1·31	517	151	4·5
	Nawádá,	88	67	8,654	42,464	483	·76	634	98	4·9
	Hariharpárá,	99	129	12,806	57,704	583	1·30	447	129	4·5
	Jalangí,	198	211	21,734	108,826	550	1·07	516	110	5·0
	Gowás,	156	207	16,577	82,587	529	1·33	399	106	5·0
	Daulatbázár,	68	135	10,853	45,779	673	1·99	339	160	4·2
	Bhagwángolá,	117	257	13,309	61,175	523	2·20	238	114	4·6
	Díwánsaráí,	101	232	10,811	49,122	486	2·30	212	107	4·5
	Badríhát,	89	156	5,916	25,954	292	1·75	166	66	4·4
	Kaliánganj,	121	195	9,728	42,163	348	1·61	216	80	4·3
	Subdivisional Total,	1195	1,855	136,960	631,317	528	1·55	340	115	4·6
Lalbagh or City Murshidabad Subdivision,	Asánpur,	22	79	4,785	18,380	835	3·59	233	218	3·8
	Mánullábázár,	14	11	5,374	17,758	1,268	·78	1,614	384	3·3
	Sháhnagar,	20	20	8,177	31,245	1,562	1·00	1,562	409	3·8
	Nalhátí,	143	211	12,445	54,981	384	1·48	261	87	4·4
	Rámpur Hát,	158	397	21,093	91,231	577	2·51	230	134	4·3
	Subdivisional Total,	357	718	51,874	213,595	598	2·01	297	145	4·1

[*Table continued on next page.*

ABSTRACT OF THE POPULATION, AREA, ETC. OF EACH SUBDIVISION AND THANA (POLICE CIRCLE) IN MURSHIDABAD DISTRICT, 1872—*continued.*

Subdivision.	*Thánd* or Police Circle.	Area in Square Miles.	Number of Villages, Mauzás, or Townships.	Number of Houses.	Total Population.	Averages according to the Census Officers.				
						Persons per Sq. Mile.	Villages, Mauzás, or Townships per Sq. Mile.	Persons per Village, Mauzá, or Township.	Houses per Sq. Mile.	Persons per House.
KANDI SUBDIVISION,	Gokaran,	107	113	11,096	47,117	440	1·05	417	104	4·2
	Khargáon,	145	170	14,609	62,892	434	1·17	370	101	4·3
	Bharatpur,	198	229	30,204	125,218	632	1·16	547	153	4·1
	Subdivisional Total,	450	512	55,909	235,227	523	1·14	459	124	4·2
JANGIPUR SUBDIVISION,	Raghunáthganj,	70	121	15,887	76,339	1,091	1·73	631	227	4·8
	Mirzápur,	108	151	8,487	36,288	336	1·40	240	79	4·3
	Palsá,	144	184	12,143	52,595	365	1·28	286	84	4·3
	Sutí,	114	83	10,661	49,642	435	·73	598	94	4·6
	Shamsherganj,	140	129	11,640	58,623	419	·92	454	83	5·0
	Subdivisional Total,	576	668	58,818	273,487	475	1·16	409	102	4·6
	DISTRICT TOTAL,	2,578	3,753	303,561	1,353,626	525	1·46	361	118	4·5

Sentence continued from page 38.]
above twelve years, males 170,329, and females 220,553. Christians —under twelve years of age, males 73, and females 79; above twelve years, males 212, and females 173. 'Others'—under twelve years of age, males 3556, and females 3415; above twelve years, males 4624, and females 4874. Population of all religions—under twelve years of age, males 236,720, and females 198,142; above twelve years, males 408,615, and females 510,149. The percentage of children not exceeding twelve years of age, in the population of different religions, is as follows:—Hindus—proportion of male children 15·9 per cent., and female children 13·4 per cent. of the total Hindu population; total proportion of children of both sexes, 29·3 per cent. of the total Hindu population. Muhammadans—proportion of male children 19·3 per cent., and of female children 16·0 per cent. of the total Muhammadan population; total proportion of children of both sexes, 35·3 per cent. of the total Muhammadan population. Christians—proportion of male children 13·6 per cent., and of female children 14·7 per cent. of the total Christian population; total proportion of children of both sexes, 28·3 per cent. of the total Christian population. Other religious denominations—proportion of male children 21·6 per cent., and of female children 20·7 per cent. of the total 'other' population; total proportion of children of both sexes, 42·3 per cent. of the total 'other' population. Population of all religions—proportion of male children 17·5 per cent., and of female children 14·6 per cent. of the total District population; proportion of children of both sexes, 32·1 per cent. of the total District population. As in almost every other District of Bengal, the Census returns show a very small proportion of female as compared with male children; while in the case of persons above twelve years of age, there is an excessive proportion of females to males. This is probably owing to the fact that girls are considered to arrive at womanhood at an earlier age than boys attain manhood; and many of them are consequently entered as adults, while boys of the same age are returned as children. The proportion of the sexes of all ages, namely, males 47·67, and females 52·33 per cent., is probably correct.

The number and proportion of insanes, and of persons otherwise afflicted with infirmities, in Murshidábád District, is returned in the Census Report as follows:—Insanes—males 227, and females 48; total 275, or ·0203 per cent. of the total population. Idiots—males

32, and females 8; total 40, or ·0030 per cent. of the total population. Deaf and dumb—males 328, and females 112; total 440, or ·0325 per cent. of the total population. Blind—males 726, and females 309; total 1035, or ·0765 per cent. of the total population. Lepers—males 1534, and females 242; total 1776, or ·1312 per cent. of the total population. It is a curious circumstance that, although the females number more than one-half of the total population of the District, out of the total number of persons afflicted with the above-mentioned infirmities, only one-fifth are women. The total number of male infirms amounts to 2847, or ·4411 per cent. of the total male population; while the number of female infirms is only 719, or ·1015 per cent. of the total female population. The total number of infirms of both sexes is 3566, or ·2634 per cent. of the total District population.

The returns given in the Census Compilation showing the occupations of the people are omitted, as they do not stand the test of statistical criticism.

ETHNICAL DIVISION OF THE PEOPLE.—The District of Murshidábád, partly from its geographical position, and partly from its history, contains a very mixed population. The Bengalís of the delta, the hill tribes from Chutiá Nágpur, and the peculiar Hindu castes of Behar, are all represented. The presence of the court at Murshidábád has introduced races from more distant parts. Rájputs came either for purposes of trade, or in search of military service. The highest born of the Musalmán nobility trace their descent from Persian ancestors. At the present day the Habshis, or the bodyguard of the Nawáb Názím, are drawn from Abyssinia and other places on the east coast of Africa.

The following list is taken from Mr. Magrath's District Census Compilation. It will be observed that it does not classify the Muhammadans according to any ethnological principle. The list of Hindu castes will be reproduced subsequently (pp. 48–56), but arranged on a different principle, according to the rank which each holds in local estimation :—

Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste.	Number.
I.—NON-ASIATICS.	
Europeans—	
English,	108
Irish,	33
Scotch,	36
Belgian,	1
French,	6
German,	2
Italian,	2
Portuguese,	4
Spaniard,	1
Others,	1
Total,	194
American,	5
Total of Non-Asiatics,	199
II.—MIXED RACES.	
Eurasian,	111
III.—ASIATICS.	
A.—Other than Natives of India and Burmah.	
Afghán,	106
Armenian,	1
Total,	107
B.—Natives of India and Burmah.	
1. *Aboriginal Tribes.*	
Bhar,	211
Bhumij,	42
Kharwár,	141
Kol,	77
Nat,	18,712
Paháriá,	2
Santál,	10,002
Uráon,	6,131
Total,	35,318
2. *Semi-Hinduized Aboriginals.*	
Bágdí,	23,929
Báheliá,	1,524
Báurí,	6,536
Bediyá,	235
Bhuiyá,	949

Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste.	Number.
2. *Semi-Hinduized Aboriginals—continued.*	
Bind,	787
Buná,	2,320
Cháin,	26,133
Chámár and Muchí,	30,619
Kuril,	2,747
Chandál,	21,764
Dom,	10,490
Turí,	472
Dosádh,	911
Hárí,	13,345
Káorá,	1,120
Karangá,	11
Koch,	139
Rájbansí,	17,507
Mál,	29,281
Malo,	1,316
Mihtár,	4,489
Musáhar,	632
Pásí,	265
Rájwár,	685
Shikárí, etc.,	205
Others,	409
Total,	198,820
3. *Hindus.*	
(i.) Superior Castes.	
Bráhman,	38,749
Rájput,	13,141
Ghátwál,	1,545
Total,	53,435
(ii.) Intermediate Castes.	
Baidyá,	2,258
Bhát,	155
Káyasth,	17,077
Total,	19,490
(iii.) Trading Castes.	
Agarwálá and Márwárí,	347
Gandhbanik,	11,016
Khatrí,	9
Mahurí,	4
Oswál,	250
Seth,	81
Subarnábaník,	5,342
Total,	17,049

Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste.	Number.
(iv.) Pastoral Castes.	
Garerí,	224
Goálá,	39,953
Gujar,	275
Total,	40,452
(v.) Castes engaged in preparing Cooked Food.	
Gánrár,	2,384
Madak,	3,062
Total,	5,446
(vi.) Agricultural Castes.	
Agurí,	249
Barui,	3,683
Támbulí,	1,172
Chásá Dhopá,	6,320
Dalui,	373
Kaibartta,	102,517
Koerí,	7,171
Kurar,	2,397
Kurmí,	3,222
Málí,	2,483
Pankhyá,	32
Sadgop,	29,321
Súdra,	31
Total,	158,971
(vii.) Castes engaged chiefly in Personal Service.	
Behárá and Duliyá,	2,335
Dhánuk,	4,487
Dhábá,	23
Dhobá,	5,295
Hajjám (Nápit),	15,057
Káhár,	3,416
Total,	30,613
(viii.) Artisan Castes.	
Bháskar,	2
Kámár,	7,450
Kánsárí,	583
Kumár,	11,278
Láherí,	274

Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste.	Number.
(viii.) Artisan Castes—*continued.*	
Sánkhárí,	422
Sonár,	4,731
Sunrí,	16,411
Sutradhar,	10,070
Telí,	12,873
Kalu,	26,316
Total,	90,410
(ix.) Weaver Castes.	
Jogí and Patuá,	5,855
Kapálí,	1,536
Kotál,	130
Tántí,	17,409
Total,	24,930
(x.) Labouring Castes.	
Beldár,	538
Chunárí,	1,032
Korá,	606
Nuniyá, etc.,	89
Parighar,	129
Patiál,	472
Total,	2,866
(xi.) Castes engaged in Selling Fish and Vegetables.	
Metiyá,	101
Nikárí,	52
Pundari-kakshya,	8,887
Purá,	7,364
Total,	16,404
(xii.) Boating and Fishing Castes.	
Gonrhi,	876
Jáliá,	3,014
Keut,	73
Málá,	7,322
Mánjhí,	64
Muriyárí,	103
Pátní,	2,529
Pod,	86
Tior,	12,033
Total,	26,100

Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste.	Number.	Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste.	Number.
(xiii.) Dancer, Musician, Beggar, and Vagabond Castes.		4. *Persons of Hindu Origin not recognising Caste.*	
Báití, etc., ...	552	Vaishnav, ...	21,464
Others, ...	119	Sanyásí, ...	190
		Native Christians, . .	226
Total, .	671	Total, .	21,880
(xiv.) Persons enumerated by Nationality only.		5. *Muhammadans.*	
Hindustání, ...	680	Jolá, ...	766
Madrásí, ...	2	Mughul, ...	21
Sikh, ...	2	Pathán, ...	1,647
Uriya, ...	61	Sayyid, ...	209
		Shaikh, ...	31,870
Total, .	745	Unspecified, ...	568,945
		Total, .	603,458
		6.—*Burmese.*	
(xv.) Persons of Unknown or Unspecified Castes,	6,149	Maghs, ...	2
		Total of Natives of India, . . .	1,353,209
		Total of Asiatics, .	1,353,316
Grand Total of Hindus,	493,731	Grand Total, .	1,353,626

Immigration and Emigration in their proper sense do not exist in Murshibábád. The semi-aboriginal tribes in the north-west of the District have probably at some time immigrated from Chutiá Nágpur or the Santál Parganás; and at the present day their numbers are occasionally increased by fresh arrivals from the same quarter. The wealthy traders in the towns on the Bhágirathí, together with their dependants, have certainly come from the north-west, but their numbers are comparatively small. The emigrants from the District consist almost entirely of hill men, who on a slight pretext leave their new settlements, and do not always return to their original homes.

The Collector, in his annual District Report for 1872-73, makes the following remarks on this subject:—'The immigration into Murshidábád is not on an extensive scale. There is, however, a very considerable number of temporary immigrants from Chutiá Nágpur, and from Behar and the North-Western Provinces, who

pass through Murshidábád at the commencement of the cold weather, on their way to Rangpur, Dinájpur, and other trans-Gangetic Districts. The small genuine immigration that there is consists mainly of persons of the *sipáhí, barkándáz,* horsekeeper, and punkah puller classes, who come hither from up-country in search of service. The wealth of the Báluchar and Azímganj merchants is steadily increasing; and the Oswáls are thus enabled to gratify their pride and love of show by the engagement of these retainers. Some of these immigrants, failing to find employment, resort to petty thefts.' 'No organized emigration, and but little of any description, takes place from this District. During the period of more than two years since I first came here, I have only seen one recruiter, and he disappeared when closely questioned as to his business. The number of persons who leave Murshidábád to push their fortunes in other parts of the country forms quite an insignificant proportion in the total population of the District.'

Aboriginal Tribes and Hill Men.—The total number of the aboriginal tribes, according to the arrangement of Mr. Magrath's Census Compilation, amounts to 35,318 souls. The great majority of these are composed either of Santáls and Uráons or Nats.

The Nats are almost confined to Rámpur Hát Subdivision; but in that little tract they are more numerous than in all the remainder of Bengal. They are thus described by Colonel Dalton in his *Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal,* p. 326, in treating of the Bediyás, whom he terms a branch of the Bájíkár or Nat family:— 'They are jugglers, fortune-tellers, rope-dancers, beggars, wanderers, and bird-killers. Their pursuits are further indicated by the circumstance that they have a slang or rogue's language, only understood by themselves. They submit to circumcision, and call themselves Muhammadans; but they have many Hindu customs and idolatrous practices, and consult Bráhmans on particular occasions.' It is possible that the Nats of Murshidábád may have settled down to a quiet life of agriculture, for the Deputy-Collector states that 'there are no predatory clans in the District, corresponding to the Bediyás of Nadiyá.' The Nats cannot have escaped notice through the insignificance of their numbers. In Murshidábád District they number 18,712, against 30,829 in the whole of Bengal. In Rámpur Hát Subdivision they number 17,418; and in the *thánd* of the same name 12,826, which is more than 14 per cent. of the entire population of that police circle.

THE SANTALS, like the Nats, are most numerous in Rámpur Hát Subdivision. They live for the most part in small communities apart from the ordinary Bengalís, and support themselves by agriculture and by selling jungle products. According to the Census Report of 1872, their number in Murshidábád is only 3002; but Mr. Magrath, in his District Compilation, has transferred to this heading 7090 unspecified Hindus, raising the total number of Santáls to 10,092. Of these, a few are scattered through the District, and, together with the Uráons, are employed as day-labourers.

THE URAONS, according to the Census, number 6131 in Murshidábád District. Nearly half of this number are set down to Rámpur Hát Subdivision. The remainder are to be found either in the large towns on the Bhágirathí, or in the neighbourhood of the indigo factories in the eastern half of the District. The town Uráons are locally known as Dhángars; while those who work in the indigo manufacture are included by the Deputy-Collector under the common name of Buná, which is said etymologically to mean 'wild' or 'wood-men.' The Census Report distinguishes the Bunás, classing them under the head of 'semi-Hinduized aboriginals;' and returns their number in Murshidábád at 2320 persons. Of these people generally, the Deputy-Collector gives the following account:—'Some Dhángars are settled in Raghunáthganj and Gadí. They act as scavengers and do other low kinds of work. They have to a certain extent become Hinduized; their cheek bones are less prominent than those of the aboriginal tribes generally, and their noses less flat. This may be due to a partial amalgamation with Hindus of the lower castes. They eat poultry, but object to beef; and are very fond of spirituous liquors and of dancing. They are less simple than in their native hills, and speak a curious jargon, compounded of Bengalí, Hindí, and their aboriginal language. They worship *Banbibi*, a wood-nymph, but also revere the Hindu deities, and sing of Rádhá and Krishna. The Dhangárs and Santáls find occupation in indigo factories and silk filatures, and on the public roads. Villages of them are sometimes established near the indigo factories. They are there called Bunás; but under this name are to be found not only Dhángars and Santáls, but also Kols.' The Revenue Surveyor thus describes the same people:—'They come chiefly from Birbhúm and Bhágalpur [now the Santál Parganás] Districts, and are a very strong, hard-working race, always ready to do a little extra work in the indigo vats for some rum or spirits. They require, however, some

management, for they are queer-tempered fellows, and liable to migrate to other parts on very slight provocation.'

THE PAHARIA MALS are also classed by the Deputy-Collector among aboriginal tribes. The Census Report gives the number of aboriginal Pahariás as only 2. The Máls it classes among the 'semi-Hinduized aboriginals,' and returns their number in Murshidábád at 29,281. This classification is only maintained for Bengal; in Behar, Orissa, and Chutiá Nágpur, the Máls are ranked with the aboriginal tribes. The Máls are far more numerous in Murshidábád than in any other District of Bengal, and, like all the other less civilised races, greatly predominate in the north-west of the District. The Deputy-Collector states that 'the Pahariá Máls live near the common boundary of Murshidábád and the Santál country. In religion, manners, language and blood, they form an intermediate class between the Santáls and the Hindus.' The aboriginal home both of the Pahariás and the Máls is undoubtedly on the Rájmahal hills, and in their origin they cannot be distinguished from one another. But Colonel Dalton, in his *Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal*, p. 274, gives some description of a third race called the Mál Pahariás, who in manners and religion are entirely aboriginal. He is of opinion that, although they live at the foot of the Rájmahal hills, they are altogether unconnected with the hill-men proper of Rájmahal.

CASTES.—The following is a list of Hindu castes in Murshidábád District, as returned by the Deputy-Collector. They are arranged as far as possible according to the rank which they hold in local public esteem, and their hereditary occupations, etc. have been appended. Their numbers have been taken from the Census Report of 1872.

SUPERIOR CASTES.—(1) Bráhman, 38,749; priests, landholders, *zamíndárí* servants, Government clerks, school-teachers, and cultivators. The majority are poor, but some are in good circumstances, and all are highly esteemed. There are a few Bráhman physicians. In respect of numbers, the Bráhmans stand third among the castes of Murshidábád. (2) Kshattriya; these formed the second or warrior caste in the old Sanskrit system, but at the present day it is believed that no pure Kshattriyas remain, at least in Bengal. Many classes, however, still lay claim to the rank. Among these are the Khatrís, a rich up-country trading caste, whose numbers are returned in the Census at 9. (3) Rájput, 13,141. This caste also claims the honour of Kshattriyahood. They come from the north-west,

and are especially numerous in this District. According to local phraseology, they are subdivided into two classes,—the Kenyás, who settled near Murshidábád for mercantile purposes; and the Rájputs proper, whose ancestors formerly served in the Muhammadan armies. The villages of Khenduá and Rájput Behárá are entirely occupied by the descendants of a military colony of Rájputs, holding under a grant from the Nawáb. Many Rájputs are now employed in military service, and as guards, policemen, and door-keepers. (4) Ghátwál, 1545. These are not properly a separate caste, though they claim to be Rájputs and Kshattriyas. Their duty formerly was, as their name imports, to guard the passes and keep the hill tribes in check. (5) Agarwálá and Márwárí, 347; (6) Oswál, 250; (7) Mahurí, 4; (8) Seth, 81. These are returned as four separate castes in the Census Report, but they are merely classes of up-country traders, who themselves lay claim to Kshattriyahood, and are generally ranked among the Rájputs. They have been settled in the District of Murshidábád for some generations, and still devote themselves to mercantile pursuits. Some of them also hold land and are among the richest men in the District. They live in the large commercial centres on the Bhágirathí, chiefly at Jiáganj, Báluchar, Jangipur, and Dhulián. According to the Deputy-Collector, the Agarwálá merchants of Dhulián profess that they are Vaisyas, which was the third or trading caste in the primitive Hindu system. He also states that the Rájá of Násipur claims to be a Vaisya. The Vaisyas are not mentioned in the Census Report, and it is commonly thought that the caste no longer exists. The Seths are, possibly, the descendants of the great banking firm of Jagat Seth, of which a historical sketch will be given on a later page. The word 'Seth,' however, is merely a synonym for 'banker,' and there are circumstances which render improbable the identification suggested above. There is only one recognised descendant of Jagat Seth now alive, who still dwells in the ancestral palace at Murshidábád; whereas the Seths of the Census are to be found without a single exception in the outlying Subdivision of Rámpur Hát. It is noticeable, also, that the Census returns give 90 Seths in the District of Bírbhúm, which adjoins this Subdivision. (9) Baidyá, 2258. The hereditary occupation of this caste is as physicians, but many are now in Government employ or private service. (10) Bhát, 155. In the old days of Hindu prosperity this caste consisted of the heralds and genealogists, who were the necessary attendants on all

great occasions at the houses of the nobles of Bengal. The Bháts have now lost their position of dignity, and are merely message-bearers and beggars. They claim to be Bráhmans, but are not accorded the respect belonging to that rank. (11) Daibajnás; not given as a separate caste in the Census Report, being, perhaps, included with the Bráhmans. The Deputy-Collector states that they are astrologers; and that, though they are Bráhmans in their origin, no pure Bráhman could associate with them in the smallest degree without forthwith losing his caste. (12) Káyasth, 17,077. This is the writer caste of Bengal. The Káyasths from an obscure origin have raised themselves by their intelligence, industry, and wealth to a foremost place in Hindu society. In all the educated professions they are the competitors of the Bráhmans.

CASTES OF UNDOUBTED SUDRAS.—(13) Nápit or Hajjám, 15,057; barbers. (14) Kámár, 7450; blacksmiths. (15) Kumár, 11,278; potters. (16) Tilí or Telí, 12,873. It is doubtful whether these two names do not represent two separate castes. The Telís proper are oil pressers and oil sellers by hereditary occupation. The Tilís are traders, grain merchants, and landholders, and have by their wealth raised themselves to a high position. The family of the Barhampur Rájás, now represented by the Maháráni Swarnamayí, belongs to the Tilí caste. (17) Támbulí or Támlí, 1172; originally growers and sellers of *pán* or betel leaf, but some are now traders and landed proprietors. (18) Sadgop, 29,321; originally a branch of the great cattle-tending caste, but the Sadgops are now ordinary cultivators, and are the most respected of agriculturists. The Deputy-Collector mentions also a class called Gop, who have ceased to be cowkeepers, and become cultivators and domestic servants. (19) Bárui or Gochálí, 3683; growers and sellers of *pán* or betel leaf. (20) Málí, 2483; gardeners, flower sellers, and pith workers. (21) Gandhbanik, 11,016; shopkeepers and cultivators. (22) Sánkhárí, 422; cutters of conch shells and manufacturers of bracelets. (23) Kánsárí, 583; braziers and coppersmiths. The Kánsáris are numerous and well-to-do; and those in Barhampur are reckoned to be the most expert workmen of their class in Bengal. In the rest of the District they are few in numbers and poor. (24) Agurí, 249; a respectable mixed class of cultivators which has lately sprung up; not badly off.

INTERMEDIATE CASTES.—(25) Gárerí, 224; dealers in blankets. (26) Goálá, 39,953; cowherds and milkmen; the second most

numerous caste in the District. (27) Gujar, 275; an up-country pastoral caste. (28) Gánrár, 2384; preparers and sellers of parched rice. (29) Madak, 3062; sweetmeat makers. (30) Kaibartta, 102,517; by far the most numerous caste in the District. The persons bearing this name are sharply divided into two classes, the Jaliá Kaibarttas and the Chásá Kaibarttas. The former, who alone in ancient times bore the name of Kaibartta, are fishermen, and usually poor, except in some favourable situations on the banks of the Ganges. The Chásá Kaibarttas form the majority of the Hindu cultivators of the soil. Like all cultivators, they are poor, but they are not despised as the fishermen are. The Deputy-Collector mentions as remarkable, that the Chásá Kaibarttas, although a totally distinct class from the fishing Kaibarttas, are nearly always found in villages by the river side, but are never fishermen. (31) Daluí, 373; cultivators. (32) Halwái, not given in the Census returns; an up-country caste of sweetmeat sellers and cultivators. (33) Chásá Dhopá, 6320; cultivators. (34) Kurmí, 3222; an up-country caste of shopkeepers, cultivators, and domestic servants. (35) Koerí, 7171; cultivators. Perhaps the same as the Kurí of the Deputy-Collector, whom he describes as shopkeepers, etc. The Census Report states that the Koerís are properly an up-country caste of market-gardeners, and suggests that 'the large number of them in Murshidábád may be due to a confusion with the Kurí caste, which is another name for Madak.' (36) Tántí, 17,409; weavers; sometimes well-to-do, but generally their condition is not so good as it used to be in former times. (37) Bháskar, 2; stone-masons. (38) Súdra, 31; cultivators; possibly Sunrís who have taken to agriculture. (39) Kurar, 2397; and (40) Pankhyá, 32; cultivators. (41) Swarnakár Sekrá or Sonár, 4731; goldsmiths. (42) Subarnábaník, 5342; dealers in gold and silver, merchants, bankers, and holders of landed property. The position of this caste forms an anomaly in Hindu society. They are held by some authorities to be an offshoot from the Sanskrit caste of Vaisyas, which ranked above all Súdras. In Bengal at the present time, the Subarnábaníks are held to be a peculiarly impure and degraded caste. According to strict theory, contact with their shadow causes contamination; but in practice, the great wealth of many members of this caste has gained for them a most respectable position. (43) Bairágí or Vaishnav, 21,464. This is not properly a caste, but a religious sect. No doubt, if a member of this sect is asked to what

caste he belongs, he will reply that he is a Bairágí; and as a matter of fact, the children will also be Bairágís, because no other caste will take them in. But the distinctive feature of their belief, as inculcated by their founder Chaitanya, is the equality of all men before God, and the rejection of caste. They will receive converts from any caste, from the Bráhman to the Hárí. One of the heads of the Murshidábád banking family of Jagat Seth, whose history will subsequently be given at length, deserted Jainism and became a Vaishnav. Many of the Vaishnavs are religious mendicants, but others are well-to-do and even wealthy. The Deputy-Collector states that in Murshidábád they are, as a body, esteemed rather than despised, owing to the general Vishnuvite leaven in the faith of the majority of the Hindus in the District. A further account of the sect will be found on a later page (p. 57), in connection with the religious divisions of the people.

Low Castes, who are generally despised:—(44) Jogí or Patuá, 5855. These two castes are not separated in the Census Report, and are there both described as weavers. The Deputy-Collector states that the Jogís are weavers and also cultivators; and that the Patavis (*sic*) are an ancient caste, who sometimes cultivate land. He adds that the Patavis are not found in the southern parts of the District. (45) Kapálí, 1536; weavers. (46) Kotál or Pradhán, 130. This caste, also, is returned in the Census Report among the weaver castes under the name of Kotál. The Deputy-Collector, however, does not assign to them this occupation. He states that both the appellations by which they are known have reference to their traditional profession of warders and guards. The term Kotál is easily to be identified in the modern *kotwál* or constable. The term Pradhán means a chief, and in other Districts is commonly used for the head-man of the village; but it does not appear that the Pradhán caste in Murshidábád is specially preferred for this office. They have a tradition among themselves that their ancestors were employed as watchmen, to protect the frontiers from the predatory inroads of the hill tribes. Even at the present day they are generally to be found in the village watch, or as *nagdís* and *halsháhás* under large landholders. They are also cultivators of the soil. (47) Láherí, 274; makers of lacquered ware. (48) Sunrí, Surí, or Sháhá, 16,411; wine and spirit sellers by caste occupation, but many are now general traders and shopkeepers. (49) Sutradhar or Chhutár, 10,070; carpenters and cultivators. The Deputy-Collector gives to this caste the name of Sans, which was applied to the stage

managers in ancient times. (50) Kalu, 26,316; oil sellers and pressers by hereditary occupation. The Deputy-Collector states that this caste is not found in the south of the District. He adds, however, as occupying a corresponding position, another caste, (51) Garuí, not given in the Census Report, of whom some are also cultivators. (52) Kálwár, and (53) Pálwár. Not given in the Census Report, but mentioned as two separate castes by the Deputy-Collector. He states that both these castes, which apparently are not indigenous to Lower Bengal, are traders and shopkeepers. (54) Dhánuk, 4487. This is properly a Behar caste. It is not found in the south-eastern part of Bengal, and is more numerous in Maldah and Murshidábád than in the whole of the remainder of the Province. Mr. Magrath, C.S., in his memorandum on the castes of Behar, printed in the Census Report, p. 175, remarks as follows:—'Dhánuk is a servile class, who, from the supposed derivation of the name, are credited with having been archers. Practically, all that is known about them is that they are a low caste of Hindus, in some way connected with the Kurmís, and employed in personal service and agriculture.' The Deputy-Collector states that in Murshidábád they are cultivators. In the Census Report for Bengal they are included among the castes engaged in domestic service. (55) Dháwá, 23. This caste is also placed in the Census Report with those employed chiefly in personal service. (56) Dhobá, 5295; washermen. (57) Káhár, 3416; palanquin bearers and domestic servants. (58) Beldár, 538; day-labourers. (59) Chunárí, 1032; lime-burners. (60) Behárá and Duliyá, 2335. Two separate castes, but returned together in the Census Report. They are palanquin bearers, labourers, and fishermen. (61) Korá, 606; cultivators and labourers. This is apparently the same caste as that written Koral by the Deputy-Collector. (62) Nuniyá, 89. (63) Parighar, 129. Both these castes are cultivators and labourers. Together with the Beldárs, they seem to have come originally from Behar. (64) Patiál, 472; mat makers and labourers. (65) Nágar. Not given in the Census Report, but described by the Deputy-Collector as cultivators and labourers; few in number and poor. (66) Chandál, 21,764. This caste is more numerous in the eastern Districts of Bengal than in Murshidábád. Those that are found in this District are said to have immigrated in comparatively modern times. They are described by the Deputy-Collector as cultivators of land, boatmen, and sellers of fish. (67) Bágdí, 23,929; palanquin bearers,

labourers, and fishermen. The Deputy-Collector states that their features approximate to an aboriginal type. It is possible that the Behárás and Duliyás (60), mentioned above, ought more properly to be regarded as only a branch of this caste. (68) Metiyá, 101, and (69) Nikárí, 52; both these castes are sellers of vegetables and fish. (70) Pundárí-kakshya, 8887, and (71) Purá, 7364. These two castes are placed in the Census Report among the castes engaged in selling fish and vegetables, and there is evidently some connection between them. They are both especially numerous in Murshidábád District, and the following account is given of them by the Deputy-Collector, under the name of Punrás :—'They are traders and cultivators, and especially rearers of silk cocoons; not few in numbers, but poor and despised. They correspond to the Pods of Lower Bengal, but are more honest people.' The Census Report states that these castes seem to be confined to the lower central Districts of Bengal. The same Report (p. 188), in reference to the Pods, quotes as follows from Bábu Bankim Chandra Chattarji, the Deputy-Collector of Murshidábád :—'Both the Pods of the 24 Parganás and the Purás of Murshidábád exhibit in physical appearance an approach to the aboriginal type. A Pod, when inclined to use fine language, calls himself a Pundárí-kakshya, which is a Sanskrit compound meaning lotus-eyed. I am inclined to derive this name and the origin of both these castes from the Paundras, who were an ancient aboriginal people inhabiting Lower Bengal in the age of the Mahábharát. The Census Report itself throws doubt on this identification, on the ground that the Purás and Pundárí-kakshyas are sellers of fish and vegetables, while the Pundáris proper mostly rear silkworms. (72) Gonrhi, 876; boatmen and fishermen. The Deputy-Collector apparently spells the name Gurí, and states that the caste is not found in the south of the District. (73) Jaliyá, 3014; boatmen and fishermen. Probably not a separate caste, but a branch of the Kaibarttas, and to be identified with the Jaliá Kaibarttas already described (p. 51). (74) Keut, 73; placed in the Census Report among the fishing castes, but described by the Deputy-Collector as cultivators, labourers, and general drudges. (75) Málá, 7322. This is properly a fishing caste, but is very liable to be confused with two other semi-Hinduized castes which are correctly termed Mál and Malo. The Deputy-Collector describes the Málás as boatmen. (76) Mánjhí, 64; not properly a separate caste, but a class of boatmen who act as helmsmen. (77) Muriyárí, 103; boatmen and fishermen. (78)

Pátní, 2529; boatmen and especially ferrymen. (79) Pod, 86; boatmen and fishermen. (80) Tior, 12,033; fishermen, cultivators, and domestic servants. This caste, like the Jaliyá, is probably connected with the Kaibarttas. (81) Báití, 552; makers of fine floor-matting. (82) Mál or Málá, 29,281; this caste is included in the Census Report among the semi-Hinduized tribes. The Deputy-Collector states that Máls are fishermen and cultivators, and that the females are often domestic servants. He distinguishes the Málás proper, who are boatmen, and the Paháriá-Máls, who have been already mentioned among the aboriginal tribes (p. 48). There is yet a fourth caste, the Málos, who will be noticed further down as labourers. Much confusion has arisen from the similarity of these names. There can be no doubt that the majority, at least, of those classed as Máls in the Census are really identical with the Paháriá-Máls of the Deputy-Collector. They predominate in Rámpur Hát Subdivision to the north-west of the District, where the Paháriá-Máls are placed by that officer, and where they certainly cannot be fishermen. The Máls are sometimes connected with the Chandáls, and sometimes described as wrestlers or snake-charmers. The Sanskrit word *mállá* signifies a wrestler. (83) Let; a caste not returned in the Census, but described by the Deputy-Collector as following the same occupation as the Máls; numerous, poor, and despised. (84) Chásu, and (85) Deásán; two castes not given in the Census, but described by the Deputy-Collector as cultivators. He adds that these three last castes are not found in Lower or Eastern Bengal. (86) Kandu; also mentioned only by the Deputy-Collector. Their occupation is to fry and sell pulses and rice, but some of them are palanquin bearers and domestic servants.

SEMI-HINDUIZED ABORIGINALS. — (87) Baheliá, 1524; day-labourers. (88) Báuri, 6536; fishermen and labourers; described by the Deputy-Collector as much resembling the Bágdís. (89) Bhuiyá, 949; cultivators and labourers, properly a Behar caste, and believed to be the indigenous inhabitants of that Province. (90) Dom, 10,490; makers of bamboo mats and baskets; often village watchmen, and *nagdís* of the great landholders. The Doms also perform the lowest offices as street scavengers and carriers of dead bodies. (91) Turí, 472; musicians and dancers. (92) Dosádh, 911; this is properly an up-country caste, and forms the ordinary labouring class of Behar. (93) Karangá, 11; labourers and cultivators. (94) Koch, 139; and (95) Rájbansí, 17,507. These

are not two separate castes, but merely different names for the great aboriginal race which formerly ruled in the north of Bengal. A further description of them will be found in the Statistical Account of Kuch Behar. Their occupation in Murshidábád is as fishermen and cultivators. (96) Málo, 1316; labourers. (97) Pásí, 265; sellers of toddy, or spirits distilled from the date palm. (98) Rájwár, 685. This is probably a Behar tribe, and is not found in the eastern Districts of Bengal. In their native province they are reckoned a predatory clan, and their origin is obscure. (99) Shikárí, 205; hunters. (100) Bájíkár; not returned in the Census Report, and probably only another name for the Nats. They are described by the Deputy-Collector as mountebanks and jugglers. (101) Bediyá, 235; a gipsy-like tribe, similar to the preceding. (102) Chámár and Muchí, 30,619; dealers in leather and shoemakers. (103) Kuril, 2747; labourers. (104) Bind, 787; boatmen. (105) Buná, 2320; labourers. The name Buná is a vague term applied to the common labourers in the indigo factories and silk filatures, of whatever race the men may be. As such, the Bunás have already been described among the aboriginal tribes (p. 47). (106) Cháin, 26,133; this is probably a Behar caste, and so far as Bengal is concerned, is only found in any numbers in the Districts of Murshidábád and Maldah. They are cultivators and labourers. (107) Hárí, 13,345; swine-herds and sweepers. They are often village watchmen and *nagdis*. The Deputy-Collector classes the Mihtárs with them, and ranks them as the lowest of the low. (108) Hárí Bhuimáli; not given in the Census Report, but mentioned by the Deputy-Collector as cultivators and domestic servants. Not found in the south of the District. (109) Musáhar, 632; this again is a Behar caste, not found in Eastern Bengal. They are labourers and cultivators. (110) Mihtár, 4489; sweepers, included by the Deputy-Collector with the Hárís.

The Deputy-Collector reports that there are no predatory clans in the District corresponding to the Bediyás of Nadiyá. According to the Census, the number of Bediyás in Murshidábád is 235; while the Rájwárs, who in their home in Behar are regarded as robbers, number 685; and the Nats, who are the original stock of the Bediyás, amount to no less than 18,712.

Religious Division of the People.—The population of the District is composed of Hindus, Muhammadans, tribes professing their aboriginal faith, Vaishnavs, Jains, Sanyásís, Christians, and members of the Bráhma Samáj. The Hindus form slightly the

majority; but the Muhammadans predominate in the low-lying half of the country to the east of the Bhágirathí. The aboriginal tribes are to be found chiefly in the north-west of the District, and the Jains, Christians, and members of the Samáj are confined almost entirely to the great towns on the Bhágirathí.

THE HINDUS, according to the Census of 1872, number 350,295 males, and 382,761 females; total, 733,056, or 54·2 of the entire population of the District. This total is based upon a rough principle of religious classification, and, therefore, does not agree with that given in connection with the ethnological division of the people. It includes Vaishnavs, Jains, Sanyásís, and members of the Bráhma Samáj, as well as those who have been already distinguished as semi-Hinduized aboriginals; but it excludes the native Christians. The Census returns show that the Hindus are proportionately most numerous in the western half of the District; in the eastern half they are outnumbered by the Muhammadans, except in the large towns and their suburbs.

THE VAISHNAVS have been already mentioned in the list of castes, under the head of Bairágí. The Census returns their number in Murshidábád at 21,464, of whom the majority are to be found in the south of the District. A full description of the origin and doctrines of this religious sect will be found in the Statistical Account of the 24 Parganás (vol. i. pp. 65–67, and 72, 73). The following additional details have been furnished by the Deputy-Collector of Murshidábád:—'The Vaishnavs belong to all castes. Some of them merely give in their adhesion to the general principles of Vaishnavism, and retain their former caste. Others go through the ceremony of initiation, and lose their caste altogether. Theoretically, there is no objection even to a Musalmán entering the Vaishnav fraternity, but I have never seen or heard of such a case. We read, however, of the conversion of two Muhammadans, who, under the name of Rúp and Sanátan, came to be ranked among the holiest saints of the sect.' 'The Vaishnavs are beggars by religion and by profession. Some of them are also musicians, by no means a respected profession in Bengal. They are sometimes cultivators and traders; but even then they do not give up their professional mendicancy. A few among them are men of considerable affluence, and are possessed of education and culture. They have a poetical literature of their own, which contains some of the finest productions of Bengalí genius, but is little known beyond their own sect.' 'Historically this sect is of

great importance. It is the fruit of one of the most considerable social and religious reformations attempted in Bengal—the protest made by the Bráhman Chaitanya against caste and priestly tyranny.'

THE JAINS, though not numerous, are especially influential in the District of Murshidábád. They are not separately recorded in the Census of 1872, and it is impossible to give any accurate estimate of their number. The wealthy up-country merchants, commonly called Kyahs, who are settled at Jiáganj, Azímganj, and Jangipur, belong almost exclusively to this sect. These merchants are returned in the Census under the names of Agarwalá or Márwárí, 347 in number; and Oswál, 250. Perhaps, also, some of those included under Rájput, 13,141, may be merchants by profession and Jains by religion. The Jain merchants have almost monopolized the commerce of Murshidábád; and a great portion of the carrying trade from Purniah and Tipperah to Calcutta is also in their hands. Among them are to be found the richest men in the District, and poverty is said to be unknown in the sect. The great banking family of Jagat Seth were originally Jains, but Harakh Chand, the fourth who held the title of Jagat Seth, became a Vaishnav. The circumstances attending this change of religion will be given at length in the history of the family on a subsequent page. It is said that though the Seths have thus abandoned the faith of their forefathers, they still retain certain customs of their old religion, and are by no means despised by the most orthodox Jains, who feel no repugnance to intermarriages with the converted Seths. The Collector states that 'the Jain merchants of the District are rapidly accumulating wealth, and show some tendency to invest a portion of their gains in the soil of their adopted country. These men appear to have a genius for trade, and their frugal habits are eminently suited for the preservation of money. They seldom indulge in alternations of lavish expenditure, except when such outlay appears to be necessary for religious observance.' Their temples are conspicuous in the towns on the river banks; and they have lately gratified their religious feelings by taking leases from the *zamíndárs* of some miles of water in the Bhágirathí, in order to prevent the fish from being caught.

A full account of the Jain religion and philosophy is given in the Statistical Account of Hazáribágh District, where lies the Hill of Párasnáth, the most celebrated place of Jain pilgrimage in Bengal. It is stated in that Account that three out of the four temples of

Parásnáth have been constructed at the expense of the Murshidábád Jains, who continue to fulfil their duties as founders through their *panchâyat* or committee. The great majority, also, of the Jain images at Párasnáth bear Sanskrit inscriptions, showing that they were dedicated by various members of the family of Jagath Seth, between 1765 and 1816 A.D.

THE SANYASIS number 190 souls, according to the Census of 1872. They are wandering religious mendicants of Sivaite faith.

THE BRAHMA SAMAJ is not separately mentioned in the Census, its members being included with the ordinary Hindus. According to an elaborate paper drawn up in 1870 by Bábu Dinanáth Gangulí, head of the Samáj, its numbers then amounted to about 50. A meeting for prayer was first established in 1861 at the house of a native gentleman, which was held regularly every week on Sunday; and at the conclusion of the prayer, a sermon was delivered by the person who undertook the service of the day. Since that date, despite considerable opposition from the old orthodox Hindu party, the Bráhma Samáj has continued to hold its meetings with regularity. In 1865 a minor branch was amalgamated with the central body, and a house was rented at Kánsárípárá, a suburb of Barhampur, sufficiently large to furnish accommodation for all the members and occasional visitors. From this time is dated the formation of what is now known as the Barhampur Bráhma Samáj. It has continued to flourish, and the library contains many religious works in Bengalí, Sanskrit, and English. Meetings for discussions are held on the evening of every Sunday; and besides the regular gatherings, there is a special prayer meeting on the first Sunday of each month. The worship has always been conducted in strict accordance with the liturgy of the Calcutta Adi Bráhma Samáj. Apart from the fifty members above mentioned, there are many among the educated Hindus of the District who sympathize more or less with the doctrines of the Samáj, but are not, for various reasons, enrolled among the regular members. The Deputy-Collector states that the Samáj is chiefly composed of young men from the colleges, who have received an English education. They are mostly clerks and other Government servants, and may be said to belong generally to what is known as the lower middle class. The influence of the Samáj is confined to the towns, principally to Barhampur.

THE MUHAMMADANS number 286,575 males, and 316,989 females; total, 603,564 persons, or 44·6 of the District population. They

are most numerous in the east of the District; and in the flat alluvial tract between the Bhágirathí, the Ganges, and the Jalangí, they outnumber the Hindus. It is natural that the Musalmán capital of Murshidábád should have attracted a great number of Muhammadans to the District; and until the facts of the Census were known, it was locally imagined that they were more numerous than the Hindus. This, however, according to the best estimates, was never the case during the present century. Indeed, it seems probable that, since 1800, their proportionate number has increased rather than diminished. It is also noteworthy that in the city of Murshidábád itself, and in the immediate suburbs, the Hindus greatly predominate. All these facts, though contrary to what might have been conjectured, are entirely consistent with the results shown in other Districts. It is not near former capitals of Musalmán power, but in alluvial river-basins that the Muhammadans of Bengal regularly outnumber the Hindus. Maldah, which contains the ruins of Gaur and Panduah, is, together with Murshidábád, the only District of the Rájsháhí Division in which the proportion of Muhammadans is less than that of the Hindus. In the other Districts of this Division, strictly fluvial tracts more exposed to the Ganges and the Brahmaputra, the Muhammadans are greatly in the majority. The numbers, therefore, of the Muhammadans in Murshidábád District cannot be attributed to the planting of the last Musalmán capital on the banks of the Bhágirathí. The court of the Nawáb has been equally destitute of effect in determining the race and characteristics of the general Muhammadan population. The Nawáb Názím himself is a Shiah. His family originally came from Persia, and claim to be descended from Sayyids, or the posterity of the prophet. There is no other Musalmán family in the District which can compare either in position or wealth with the leading Hindu *zamíndárs*. The great majority of the Muhammadan population are not Shiahs, but Sunis of the Hanáfí sect. It is said that all the great Muhammadan families retired to Dehli or to Persia when Bengal became subject to the English. The Census Report returns 106 Afgháns, out of a total of 128 in the whole of Bengal, as still residing in the District; but none of these are referred to the city of Murshidábád. The Afgháns are classed with the Asiatics who are not natives of India, and 1647 Patháns are reckoned separately among the Muhammadan natives of India. In the same category also are ranked twenty-one Mughuls.

The Deputy-Collector states that the religion of Islám has ceased to make any progress among the people. Converts, no doubt, are occasionally made from the ranks of the very lowest of the Hindu castes. A Hindu man or woman loses caste through some intrigue in which the other party is a Musalmán, and is consequently obliged to turn Muhammadan. Such cases, however, are very rare. No new Muhammadan sects are at present springing up in the District. Many of the poor husbandmen are Faraizis or Wahábís, but fanaticism is not known among them. Fanatics are to be found, if anywhere, in the higher classes of Muhammadan society. The records of the Wahábí trials at Patna disclose the names of several inhabitants of Murshidábád who were connected with that conspiracy.

THE PERSONS STILL PROFESSING VARIOUS FORMS OF ABORIGINAL FAITH, who are called 'others' in the Census Report, amount to 8180 males, and 8289 females; total, 16,469, or 1·2 of the District population. The ethnological classification of the people gave the total of the aboriginal tribes as 35,318. The present classification, being based upon a different principle, excludes from the larger total all those who have adopted to an appreciable extent the beliefs and ceremonies of Hinduism.

THE CHRISTIANS in Murshidábád number 285 males, and 252 females; total, 537. Of this total 194 are classed as Europeans, and 111 as Eurasians. The Americans number five, and there is one Armenian. The remainder, 226, are native Christians. The Rev. J. Bradbury describes the native Christians as being poor, and earning their livelihood by agricultural or domestic service.

There are no BUDDHISTS in the District, according to General Statement I B. of the Census Report, which classifies the religions of the people. The ethnological classification, however, of Mr. Magrath returns two Maghs or Burmese as dwelling in the police circle of Gorá-Bázár.

DIVISION OF THE PEOPLE INTO TOWN AND COUNTRY.—The District of Murshidábád contains a fair share of large towns, and also a considerable proportion of very small villages. The towns on the Bhágirathí, from their wealth and the style of their buildings, have greater pretensions than is usual in Bengal. The urban population, however, is decidedly not on the increase. The inhabitants of Murshidábád city, as appears from the estimates that will subsequently be presented in detail, have steadily decreased in number since that city ceased to be a metropolis. The decay of the weaving trade,

caused by the introduction of English goods, has also tended to diminish the population of the towns. The Deputy-Collector is of opinion that the inclination of the people is now strongly in favour of country life. The interests of the District have become agricultural rather than manufacturing. The country engrosses the attention of the administrative and judicial officers, while the towns form a far less important subject of consideration.

The towns and villages are thus classified according to size in the District Census Compilation:—Villages with a population of less than two hundred, 1654; between two and five hundred, 1373; between five hundred and one thousand, 547; between one and two thousand, 148; between two and three thousand, 15; between three and four thousand, 9; between four and five thousand, 1; between five and six thousand, 1; between six and ten thousand, 1; between ten and fifteen thousand, 2; between twenty and fifty thousand, 2; total number of villages and towns, 3753. It must be recollected that the unit of classification is the *mauzá*, not the village or township as usually understood; and that the *mauzás* are arranged according to the *thánás* or police circles in which they may happen to be situated, and that the whole of one municipality may not be contained within a single *tháná*. Some of the larger *mauzás*, on the other hand, are not single towns in any strict sense of the term, but merely agglomerations of petty villages.

MUNICIPALITIES AND LARGE TOWNS.—The Deputy-Collector, in 1870, reported that the number of municipalities incorporated under Act vi. of 1868 was four, namely, Barhampur, Murshidábád city, Kándí, and Jangipur; and that Daulatábád had also been formed into a municipality under Act xx. of 1856. No municipalities have been created under Act iii. of 1864. Details of six towns, Murshidábád city, Barhampur, Kándí, Jangipur, Beldángá, and Margrám, are given in the District Census Compilation as each containing a population of more than 5000. The two last of these are mere aggregates of rural villages. The table on the opposite page presents in a concise form the statistics available for these six towns.

MURSHIDABAD OR MAKSUDABAD CITY, situated in 24° 11′ 5″ north latitude and 88° 18′ 50″ east longitude, is still the most populous town in the District, though its historical importance has entirely departed. The diminution in the number of its inhabitants probably commenced immediately from the date when it ceased to be the

[*Sentence continued on page* 64.

STATISTICS OF TOWNS IN MURSHIDABAD DISTRICT CONTAINING MORE THAN 5000 INHABITANTS.

Names of Towns.	Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Christians.	Others.	Total.	Gross Municipal Income.	Gross Municipal Expenditure.	Rate of Taxation per head.	
						£ s. d.	£ s. d.	R. a. p.	s. d.
City of Murshidábád,	27,211	18,824	38	109	46,182	2,276 6 0	2,243 16 0	0 7 8	0 11½
Barhampur, . .	20,742	5,770	105	493	27,110	1,148 18 0	1,389 2 0	0 6 9	0 10⅜
Kándí, . . .	10,452	1,516	...	48	12,016	551 4 0	448 4 0	0 7 4	0 11
Jangipur, . .	7,351	3,996	14	...	11,361	387 14 0	332 6 0	0 4 6	0 6¾
Bedángá, . .	4,136	1,885	1	15	6,037	...	...	...	...
Margrám, . .	2,918	2,848	...	...	5,766	...	...	...	...
Total,	72,810	34,839	158	665	108,472	4,364 2 0	4,413 8 0	0 7 3	0 10⅞

Sentence continued from page 62.]
capital of Bengal, in 1772. We have no estimate of the population in those days, but it must have been very great. The circumference of the extensive suburbs has been put as high as thirty miles; but the largest dimensions of the city proper, in 1759, are said to have been five miles along the Bhágirathí in length, and two and a half miles in breadth on each bank of the river. In the same year Colonel Clive wrote: 'The city of Murshidábád is as extensive, populous, and rich as the city of London, with this difference, that there are individuals in the first possessing infinitely greater property than in the last city.' 'The inhabitants, if inclined to destroy the Europeans, might have done so with sticks and stones.' In the beginning of the present century, by which time the decay of the city had already set in, we have several estimates of the population. They cannot be omitted in this place, though for purposes of comparison they are almost useless, as we know neither the area which the city was then supposed to cover, nor the modes of enumeration adopted. In 1815, the number of houses was estimated at 30,000, and the total population at 165,000 souls. In 1829, the Magistrate, Mr. Hathorn, took what is described in the Census Report for 1872 as 'a tolerably accurate census.' The results for the city of Murshidábád were as follow:—Total number of houses, 40,118: number of Hindus, males, 44,438; females, 45,648; total of Hindus, 90,086: number of Muhammadans, males, 28,442; females, 27,648; total of Muhammadans, 56,090: grand total of city population, 146,176. In 1837, Mr. Adam found the inhabitants of Murshidábád city to amount to 124,804 persons, which shows a decrease of nearly 15 per cent. in eight years. The population of the present city is no more than 46,182; but the old city comprised a much larger area than is included within the municipal boundaries of to-day. Mr. Adam states that the city was divided into nineteen *thánás*, containing 373 *mahallas* and villages. 'Of these nineteen *thánás*,' he says, 'ten, viz. eight on the eastern and two on the western side of the Bhágirathí, are said to constitute the old city of Murshidábád, or the city properly so-called. In point of fact, several of the *thánás* included in the city jurisdiction are in every just sense *mufassal* or rural *thánás*. They contain only small and scattered villages, and are interspersed with cultivated fields, jungle, and morass.' The experimental Census of 1869 was very inadequately taken in the towns of this District, and gives no return of the smallest value for

Murshidábád city. At that time, however, the number of houses was roughly put at 12,874, and the municipal population at 45,059. The authoritative Census of 1872 yielded the following results:—Number of Hindus, males 14,251, females 12,960; total number of Hindus, 27,211: number of Muhammadans, males 9056, females 9768; total number of Muhammadans, 18,824: number of Christians, males 19, females 19; total number of Christians, 38: number of 'others,' males 66, females 43; total number of 'others,' 109: total population of all religions, males 23,392, females 22,790; grand total, 46,182. The city of Murshidábád has been formed into a municipality under Act vi. of 1868. In 1869 the annual municipal income was £3347, 15s. 1d.; and the annual expenditure, £2302, 11s. 8d. The Census Report of 1872 returns the gross municipal income at £2276, 6s. 0d., the expenditure at £2243, 16s. 0d., and the rate of taxation at 7 *ánnás* and 8 *pies* or 11½d. per head. The official English name for the municipality is Lál Bágh, the name also of the Subdivision of which it is the centre. The municipal boundaries, as fixed in a notification of Government dated 17th March 1869, include 17 villages on the right or west bank of the Bhágirathí, and 160 villages on the left bank of the river.

The history of Murshidábád city is the history of Bengal during the eighteenth century. In 1704 the great *díwán*, Murshid Kulí Khán, fixed the seat of Government at the city which he called by his own name. Murshidábád has up to the present day continued to be the residence of the Nawáb of Bengal; but it has lost all historical importance since 1793, in which year Lord Cornwallis finally transferred the supreme criminal jurisdiction to Calcutta. The old name of the place was Maksudábád or Mukhsoosabad, and it is stated by Tieffenthaler to have been originally founded by Akbar. In 1696, the Afgháns from Orissa, in the course of their rebellion, advanced as far as Maksudábád, defeated 5000 of the imperial troops, and plundered the town. The neighbouring town of Kasímbázár is said to have been saved from a similar fate by the intercession of its merchants. It was called Murshidábád by its second founder; but the old name yet lingers, and is said to be still in constant use among the Muhammadans. It is regularly spelt Muxudavad in the early English Records, as late as the year 1760. Tradition relates that Murshid Kulí Khán moved his Government to this place through fear of Prince Azím-us-Shán, who

had attempted to assassinate him at Dacca. It seems more probable that he was induced to take this step by political considerations. Dacca had lost its importance, for the Maghs and the Portuguese were no longer dangerous; and the banks of the Bhágirathí afforded a more central position for the management of the three Provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa. The new city also was situated on the line of trade, along which the treasures of India were now beginning to find their way to the European settlements on the Húglí; and it commanded the town of Kasímbázár, where all the foreigners had important factories. Moreover, the situation in those days was regarded as very healthy. The further history of the city is involved in the sketch of the general history of Murshidábád District which is given on a subsequent page.

The city of Murshidábád presents at the present day but few traces of its former grandeur. The chief object of attraction is the new palace of the Nawáb Názim, on the banks of the river, and nearly in the centre of the city. It is a large and imposing pile of buildings in the Italian style, and its proportions are by some preferred to those of the Government House at Calcutta. It took ten years in building, and was completed in 1837, at a cost of £167,000. The architect was General Macleod of the Bengal Engineers; but all the other persons engaged on the work were natives. The edifice itself is called by the natives the Ainá Mahál; and, together with other buildings enclosed within the same wall, is known as the Nizámat *kilá* or fort. The palace is 425 feet long, 200 wide, and 80 high. It has a splendid marble floor, and contains a banqueting-hall 290 feet long, with sliding doors encased in mirrors. 'The different rooms are adorned in different styles. In the centre of the building is a dome, from which hangs a vast and most superb chandelier of 150 branches, presented to the Nawáb by the Queen. Beneath stands a beautiful ivory throne, with painted and gilded flowers, a specimen of the perfection of that ivory work for which Murshidábád is famous. Hung on the walls are portraits of the present Nawáb, his ancestors, and his sons.'[1] The *zanáná*, or private apartments, are situated to the right of the main entrance, and in the rear of the palace. Within the same enclosure is the Imámbárá or house of prayer, which is built directly in front of the northern principal door. Outside the *kilá*, and a short distance on the left along the road leading to Barhampur, is a magnificent

[1] *Travels of a Hindu*, vol. i. pp. 79, 80.

range of coach-houses and stabling for horses and elephants. The Nizámat College, which has been built exclusively for the education of the relatives of the Nawáb, at a cost of £7800, is situated in the opposite direction, a little way up the river.

The present Imámbárá dates only from A.H. 1264 (A.D. 1847), as is denoted by an inscription composed of the letters of the words 'The Grove of Karbala.' It is itself a fine structure, being considerably larger than the Imámbárá at Húglí; but it occupies the place of the far more celebrated building erected by Siráj-ud-Daulá, which is thus described in a native chronicle:[1]—'It was built with care and reverence, Muhammadan workmen only being employed and Hindus excluded. The Nawáb laid the first stone with his own hand, and put lime over it, after which the workmen commenced. In the midst of the Imámbárá, a piece of ground called *madiná* was dug out to the depth of a man's stature, and filled with earth taken from the holy place at Karbala. On all four sides were rooms forming a sort of cloister. On the east were vestibules facing toward the west, with a pulpit and a place set aside for a sort of chapter-house, where the elegies on Husáin were read. In the west of the building there were similar vestibules facing toward the east, in which were nearly a hundred flags, and the sacred coffins made of silver, gold, glass, and wood. During the Muharram, the Kurán was here chanted day and night, and at fixed times during the other months of the year. The cloisters in the north and east of the building were constructed on a similar plan; but these contained only the out-offices, etc., where hundreds of workmen kept themselves in readiness during the Muharram to illuminate the place. The verandahs of the second storey contained screens of mica, behind which the lamps hung. On the screens were pictures of men, animals, and flowers, which had a striking effect when their transparent panes were illuminated from within. All kinds of chandeliers, in large numbers, were placed in the vestibules, and also Indian lamps. In the north and south vestibules were two representations of the Burág,—the horse on which the prophet ascended to heaven, each with a human face and a peacock's tail. The length of the tails reached to the roof of the house. Well-polished shields and china or silver plates were fitted into the feathers of the tail, to represent the eyes of a peacock's feathers. Swords,

[1] *Tarikh-i-Mansuri*, by Sayyid Alí; MS. translated by Professor Blochmann, pp. 97-102.

sabres, and daggers were arranged in different patterns around these shields, and hundreds of wax candles made the whole a dazzling and splendid object. All these costly treasures, lavished upon the temple by Siráj-ud-Daulá with so much pride, were turned into ready money by Mír Kásim. This was not, however, to relieve his own necessities,—a motive which would have seemed sacrilege to one so religious as Mír Kásim,—but to assist the poor of the city, and to despatch a number of indigent Muhammadans on a pilgrimage to Mecca. This building was accidentally burnt to the ground during a display of fireworks about forty years ago. Whilst the present Imámbárá was building, which is said to have cost £60,000, the workmen received their food in addition to their wages, and also when it was finished a present of a double shawl and a handkerchief. At that time you might have seen shawls in every lane in Murshidábád. At the season of the Muharram a daily distribution of food attracts large crowds, who are again drawn together in the evening by fireworks and illuminations. The Nawáb attends one day's celebration, and takes his seat on a black carpet; over which a white embroidered coverlet is spread, and a black rug takes the place of the usual bolster. After the recitation of the customary elegies, sherbet and spices are handed round. Other curious practices, peculiar to the sect of the Shiahs among the Muhammadans, accompany this festival. On the 7th day of the Muharram, the Imámbárá is turned into a harem, and all the Begams attend. They place chains on the Nawáb, according to custom, and a chain round his neck. Hundreds of women, high and low, receive presents from the Begams, who are said to distribute thousands of rupees.'

The most striking emblem of royal dignity still maintained at Murshidábád is the imperial music, which may still be heard in the early morning sounding from the great fortified gateway which leads to the palace. This peculiar strain of instrumental music, which was allowed by the Dehli emperors to all *subahdárs* (deputy-governors) as a mark of delegated sovereignty, is frequently alluded to by the native chroniclers as the public accompaniment of each important event in the history of the Nawábs. At the present time the musicians have lost their traditional cunning, and the sound is described as 'discordant and jangling;' but what the effect was in the days of the early Nawábs may be learned from the *Sair-i-Mutakharim* :—'This music consists of *nágrás* (kettle-drums) of iron,

twice as big as those in Europe; *dhols* (ordinary drums); *zurnobs* (hautboys); *kárás* (trumpets); *zils* (cymbals), an instrument lately borrowed by the Europeans from the Turks, but played by the Indians in a more delicate, curious, and scientific manner; *tassas* (flat kettle-drums), of varying diameter and depth; and lastly, a *karnah* or straight speaking-trumpet, which is seven or eight feet in length, and two or three inches in width at the mouth. All these instruments are played together upon the top of the main gateway of a fortress or palace, or upon a structure raised for the purpose on three lofty arches, and therefore called a *tripuliah*. There is produced a very animating music, which at a distance is very pleasing. The long trumpet can be heard a mile away, and might be thought only the voice of a Nádir Sháh thundering out his orders to his army. The concert invariably commences with one of the *tassas*, which is joined successively by all the instruments. Each sort of drum plays by itself, and at intervals is reinforced by the others. The long trumpet sounds alone, or perhaps accompanied by a *tassa*.'

Another ceremony which is still celebrated at Murshidábád with many popular manifestations, is that in honour of Khivájá Khizr, literally the Green Lord, the name given by the Muhammadans to the prophet Elias. With this saint is connected the celebrated custom of launching tiny light-ships on the river, which may be seen to great advantage on the Bhágirathí. On certain nights in the rainy season thousands of little rafts, each with its lamp burning, are floated down the stream. Their construction is very simple. A piece of plantain or bamboo bears a sweetmeat or two and the lamp. This fête is rendered more picturesque by the unusual presence of the women, who are allowed out of doors for the occasion. The Nawáb Názím participates in the show with much magnificence on the last Thursday of the month of Bhádra (September), when all the residents are invited.[1] A raft of 100 cubits square is constructed of plantain trees and bamboos, and covered with earth. On this is erected a small fortress, bearing on its walls all manner of fireworks. At a given signal the raft is launched and floated to the further side of the river, when the fireworks are let off, their reflection on the water producing a most beautiful effect. Concerning the origin of this festival there is some conflict of opinion. Bábu Bholanáth Chandra, in his *Travels of a Hindu* (vol. i. p. 82), gives the following story:—The fête is a Muhammadan one, and was instituted in

[1] *Tarikh-i-Mansuri*, Blochmann, p. 103.

commemoration of the escape from drowning of an ancient prince. He would have perished in the darkness, had not a troop of beautiful maidens launched upon the river a fleet of these little boats. Their flickering light guided his attendants to the rescue of the sinking man. Professor Garcin de Sassy, in his *Memoire sur des Particularités de la Religion Musalmane dans les Indes* (p. 85 *et seq.*), states that the majority of Oriental authorities consider Khivájá Khizr to be the same as Phineas, the younger son of Aaron, while others say that he is the prophet Elias, and the Turks confound him with St. George. All Muhammadans agree that he discovered the source of the water of life. The Musalmáns in India venerate him as the inspirer of divination; and in honour of his functions in this capacity, and as the patron of the watery element, have founded the festival of the lighted boats.

Apart from the Nizámat *kilá* and the buildings connected therewith, there is but one other structure worth notice now standing in the city proper. This is the mosque erected by Mani Begam, in the vicinity of the Mubárak Mauzil, formerly called the Kandil Bágh. The peculiarity of this mosque was its liberality of worship. On one side prayers were conducted according to the Hanáfí rite of the Suni sect, while on the other side were being observed the religious ceremonies of the Shiahs, the Court sect.[1]

The general aspect of the city is thus described by the Revenue-Surveyor (1860):—'Numerous brick buildings stand all along the banks of the river, north and south of the palace, which belong to, and are chiefly occupied by, the relatives and adherents of the Nawáb. Many others, some with pretty gardens, are scattered about in the tangled maze of jungle, hovels, holes, and tanks which lie to the eastward. Standing on the top of the palace dome, the loftiest place in the District, and looking over the city and its suburbs, little meets the eye but a dense forest of bamboos and trees of all kinds. Hardly a clear spot is to be seen. It is only when one turns to the west that the river and the high land in the north-west of the District present open tracts. A stranger, as he stood and gazed, would never imagine that below was a dense mass of human beings of all classes, crowded together in every description of house and hut.' 'There are no defined limits to Murshidábád as a city, nor is any part known especially by this name. It is given indiscriminately to a collection of temples, mosques, handsome brick houses, gardens, walled en-

[1] *Tarikh-i-Mansuri*, Blochmann, p. 54.

closures, hovels, huts, and tangled jungle, containing the ruins of many edifices that have sprung up and decayed around the many residences of the former and present Nawábs Názím of Murshidábád.'

MUTIJHIL,[1] or the Lake of Pearls (a favourite name also applied to a lake in Kashmír and another in Lahor), is about two miles south of Murshidábád. Dr. B. Hamilton states that it has been one of the former windings of the river; but others are of opinion that it was formed by the excavations made to procure bricks for building the houses, which were at one time surrounded by the lake in the form of a horse-shoe. It continues to be a beautiful spot, but hardly a relic remains of its ancient magnificence. It seems to have been first chosen as a residence by Nuázish Muhammad, the nephew of Alí Vardí Khán. It is more celebrated, however, for the palace built by Siráj-ud-Daulá at an enormous expense. The materials were partly brought from the ruins of Gaur; and a few arches are still left, constructed of the black marble (or rather hornblende) which once covered the tombs of old Pathán kings of Bengal. The following story is told of its completion, to explain the name of Mansurganj, by which it is commonly known :—'As the building was nearly finished, Siráj-ud-Daulá invited Alí Vardí to see it. When he came, Siráj-ud-Daulá locked him up in a room, and refused to release him unless the *zamíndárs* there paid a fine for their land. This request the Nawáb was compelled to grant, and also to allow to his petulant grandson the privilege of erecting a granary. This granary the people called Mansurganj, or the Granary of the Victorious, *i.e.* of Siráj-ud-Daulá, who outwitted his grandfather.' The *abwáb*, or extraordinary taxation, extorted on this occasion, is said to have amounted to Rs. 501,597. It was from Mutijhil that Siráj-ud-Daulá, in 1757, marched out for the battle of Plassey; it was in the palace here that Colonel Clive placed Mír Jafar on the *masnad;* and it was again at Mutijhil that Lord Clive, as *díwán* of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, held the first English Punyá in 1766. Mír Jafar fixed his residence on the further side of the river, and Mutijhil—or Morádbágh, as the place was sometimes called, from the name of a second palace in the neighbourhood—now became the home of the English Political Resident at the Court of Murshidábád. One of the first to fill this office was Warren Hastings. Subsequently, during the years 1771-73, Mr. John Shore (afterwards

[1] This description of Mutijhil, and of the scenes connected with it, is almost entirely taken from Mr. Long's *Banks of the Bhágirathí.*

Lord Teignmouth) lived at Mutijhil, where he amused himself by improving the grounds and studying the Oriental languages. He described his life there in the following words:—'Here I enjoy cooing doves, whistling blackbirds, and purling streams. I am quite solitary, and, except once a week, see no one of Christian complexion.' In 1785-86 the headquarters of the English were removed from Mutijhil to Máidapur, prior to their final transfer to Barhampur. The Punyá or annual settlement of the revenues of Bengal was annually held at Mutijhil, until it was abolished in 1772, when the Khálsá or Treasury was removed to Calcutta. It was a ceremony of great state, at which all the great *zamíndárs* attended in person, and paid a sort of homage to the Nawáb. *Khiláts* or presents were distributed, which were regarded as a confirmation of their appointment; and the rent-roll of the Provinces was then fixed for the year. A form like the Punyá is still kept up at the *kacharí* of every *zamíndár*, but the Government ceremony has never been re-established. Clive attached great importance to this institution, and raised a special revenue collection in order to defray the expenses; but in 1769 the Court of Directors prohibited the giving of presents. In 1767 the Punyá was held at Mutijhil with peculiar pomp. The Nawáb was seated on the *masnad*, and Mr. Verelst, the Governor, on his right hand. The latter in the strongest manner urged the ministers and landholders to give all possible encouragement to the clearing and cultivating of lands for the mulberry. On this occasion *khiláts* were distributed to the amount of Rs. 216,870. Some of the items were: for the Governor and his Council, Rs. 46,750; for the Nizámat, Rs. 38,800; for the people of the Treasury, Rs. 22,634; for the Zamíndár of Nadiyá, Rs. 7352; for the Rájá of Bírbhúm, Rs. 1200; for the Rájá of Bishnupur, Rs. 734.

KHUSH BAGH, the Garden of Happiness, the old cemetery of the Nawábs, lies on the right bank of the Bhágirathí, just opposite Mutijhil. The following description is based upon notes by Captain Layard, Executive Engineer, Barhampur, which are quoted in the Report of the Revenue Surveyor:—The cemetery consists of three walled enclosures. The outer of these is entered by a gateway from the east side, in front of which are the ruins of an old *ghát*, which formerly led down to the Bhágirathí, when that river ran under the walls. The channel is now nearly half a mile distant. The wall facing the river is loopholed for musketry, and flanked by

octagonal bastions. The grounds inside are all laid out as gardens, with hedges bordering the walks; and the flowers grown in the beds serve to adorn the tombs. Many fine trees also afford a delightful shade to the explorer. Traces of fresco paint, almost obliterated by damp and neglect, may still be seen on the walls. In the outer enclosure there are eighteen tombs, only two of which have any inscription. These two have the same verse from the Kurán, the one in Persian, the other in Arabic. The middle of the three enclosures is the principal cemetery, and contains the remains of the 'good Nawáb,' Alí Vardí Khán, and of his grandson Siráj-ud-Daulá. Besides the mausoleum, there are a mosque and two other buildings set apart for the female descendants of the dead, who still retain charge of the cemetery. Spread on the tombs are dark-coloured cloths or palls, spangled with gold and silver flowers; fresh flowers are strewed daily on and around them, and lights are kept continually burning. This cemetery was first endowed by Alí Vardí Khán, who allotted Rs. 305 monthly, from the collections of the villages of Bandárdeh and Nawábganj, to defray the expenses of keeping the place in order. After the murder of Siráj-ud-Daulá, his widow, the Begam Lutf-u-Nissa, who had accompanied her husband in his flight to Rájmahal, and had been afterwards banished to Dacca with other ladies of the Court, was subsequently recalled and placed in charge of the cemetery of Khush Bágh. Here she remained till her death, receiving, in addition to the Rs. 305 already mentioned, a personal allowance of Rs. 1000 per mensem. She now lies buried in the mausoleum by the side of her husband, but the charge is still held by her descendants, who draw pensions from the Government treasury at Barhampur. Forster mentions in 1781, that *mullás* were employed here to offer prayers for the dead, and the widow of Siráj-ud-Daulá used often to come to the tomb and perform certain ceremonies of mourning. The entire cost of the establishment required for maintaining the burial-ground is now paid by the English Government. The third and innermost enclosure contains only a tank, the former dwelling-place of the attendants, a *muzaffar kháná*, or travellers' home, and a well. This latter is no longer used, and has been walled up; for it is said that a *fakír* accidentally fell into it and was drowned, which caused its waters to be polluted and accursed.

To the north-east of Mutijhil, and immediately outside the city of Murshidábád, is the Kuttará, the building which contains the tomb

of Murshid Kulí Khán. The story of the process of forced Hindu labour by which it was erected will be described on a subsequent page. It is said to have been constructed after the model of the great mosque at Mecca, and has two splendid minarets 70 feet high. The Nawáb is buried at the foot of the stairs, so as to be trampled on by every one who passes up. The Kuttará is described by Hodges, a traveller of 1780, as 'a grand seminary of Musalmán learning, 70 feet square, adorned by a mosque which rises high above all the surrounding building.' In this neighbourhood is the Topkháná, the arsenal of the Nawábs, which formed the eastern gateway of the city. The spot is now pointed out for a natural curiosity. A cannon had been placed between two young trees, which have now grown up, and their branches have combined to lift the gun high above the ground.

BARHAMPUR (Berhampore), the civil headquarters of the District, a military cantonment, and until this year (1875) the residence of the Commissioner of the Rájsháhí Division, is situated on the left bank of the Bhágirathí, about five miles below the city of Murshidábád, in 24° 6′ 30″ north latitude and 88° 17′ 31″ east longitude. The population of this town is somewhat liable to fluctuations, which depend upon the strength of the troops which may happen to be in garrison. At the time of the experimental Census of 1869, when there was an European regiment at Barhampur, the number of houses was returned at 8172, and the population at 28,105 souls. The regular Census of 1872, when there was only a detachment of a native regiment at Barhampur, gave the following results:—Number of Hindus—males 11,543, females 9199; total of Hindus, 20,742: number of Muhammadans—males 3005, females 2765; total of Muhammadans, 5770: number of Christians—males 50, females 55; total of Christians, 105: number of 'others'—males 251, females, 242; total of 'others,' 493: total of all denominations—males 14,849, females 12,261; grand total, 27,110. Barhampur has been constituted a municipality under Act vi. of 1868. Its boundaries are defined by a notification of Government, dated August 13, 1874, which also divides the municipality into two portions,—termed the Barhampur block, lying to the north; and the Gorábázár block, to the south. In 1870 the municipal income amounted to £1817, 11s. 0d., and the municipal expenditure to £1569, 1s. 8d. In 1872, according to the District Census Compilation, the gross income was £1148, 18s. 0d., and the gross

expenditure £1389, 2s. 0d.; the average rate of municipal taxation per head of the population being 6 *ánnás* and 9 *pies*, or 10½d.

The town of Barhampur is said to be so called from a Musalmán named Brampur, an officer in the army of an early Nawáb. It was selected as the site of military barracks shortly after the battle of Plassey, but the civil quarters were not fixed here till the close of the last century. The Chief or Collector of Murshidábád had previously resided at Mutijhil and Máidapur. The Government Records, edited by the Rev. J. Long, show that it was in October 1757 that 'Barhampur plain' was first chosen as the site of Government buildings. The factory house at Kásimbázár had been destroyed by Siráj-ud-Daulá, and the fortifications dismantled, in the previous year; and it was now proposed, as the most economical course, to construct a new fort on Barhampur plain. A *sanad* was obtained from Mír Jafar for 400 *bighás* or 133 acres of ground; but the project was disallowed by the Court of Directors, and no further steps were taken at this time. The letter from the Court, dated March 1759, contains the following remarkable paragraph:—'We cannot avoid remarking that you seem so thoroughly possessed with military ideas as to forget your employers are merchants, and trade their principal object; and were we to adopt your several plans for fortifying, half our capital would be buried in stone walls.' The barracks still form the most prominent feature of the town, though of late years they have been rarely occupied by European troops, and have now (1875) been, to a great extent, appropriated to other uses. They form a large square on the banks of the river, the range of buildings next the water being for the general and the staff. North and south are double ranges of officers' quarters; and on the eastern side, which completes the square, are three ranges of double-storied barracks for the soldiers. The church is situated at the north-east corner of the square. The immediate cause of the construction of these barracks was to secure Bengal against such another occurrence as the revolt of Mír Kásim in 1763. The proximity to the capital of Murshidábád, of course, determined the choice of this spot, but in addition it was thought far more healthy than the neighbourhood of Calcutta. The barracks took two years in building, being completed in 1767, and were at that time looked upon as the northern frontier station of the Bengal army. The cost amounted to the enormous sum, for those days, of £302,270, the price of

materials being three times as much as in Calcutta. In 1768 the Chief of Murshidábád appointed a committee to inquire into the exorbitant charges which had been made; and three covenanted officials were suspended, for overcharges amounting to two *lákhs* of rupees. The author of the *Sair-i-Mutakharim* thus describes the building in 1786:—'The barracks of Barhampur are the finest and healthiest that any nation can boast of. They contain two regiments of Europeans, seven or eight of *sipáhís*, and fifteen or sixteen cannons. And yet I have heard men say that the Musalmáns are so numerous at Murshidábád, that with brick-bats in their hands they could knock the English down.' Barhampur was for a long time a large brigade station. The Revenue Surveyor states that in 1857 (the year of the Mutiny) there were there one battalion of native infantry, one of irregular cavalry, and two post-guns. Since that date European troops have been again stationed at Barhampur, but they were finally removed in 1870. In that year the troops at Barhampur consisted solely of a detachment of the 37th Native Infantry. The cavalry lines lie a few miles to the east of the barracks, away from the river. The soil is more sandy than in other parts of the neighbourhood, and the water better. According to the Revenue Surveyor, the site seems exceedingly well chosen, judging from the health of the men and horses in 1856, when an unusual inundation had rendered the whole District very unhealthy. He remarks also that the horses had hitherto escaped the common and destructive disease in Bengal, known as 'going in the loins.'

The various civil offices and the treasury lie to the south-west of the barracks, about a mile distant. At Máidapur, three miles to the east, the site of the civil station after the removal from Mutijhil in 1786, were situated the old jail and the old Government lunatic asylum. The jail has now (1875) been removed to the former hospital for European troops within the Barhampur barracks; and the barracks have also been utilized for the construction of a new lunatic asylum, subsidiary to the old building at Máidapur. Besides the church in the cantonments, there is also a chapel of the London Missionary Society a little to the north, and a Roman Catholic chapel to the east. The mission chapel was built by voluntary contributions in 1828. A theatre was established at Barhampur in 1821; a Bible association in 1830; and an agricultural society in 1837. Gorá-bázár, the southern suburb, is inhabited chiefly by Musalmáns and Urdu-speaking immigrants from the North-West.

About two miles to the east of Gorá-bázar is the spot where the annual fair is held in honour of Raghunáth, called Chaltía *meld*, which is attended by about 20,000 people. The cemetery of Barhampur is an object of interest, as containing the remains of many Englishmen. Amongst those who lie here may be mentioned George Thomas, the successful Irish adventurer in Rájputáná at the close of the last century; Creighton, the explorer of Gaur; and the hero of Mrs. Sherwood's well-known tale, *Little Henry and his Bearer*.

THE MUTINY AT BARHAMPUR.—The cantonments of Barhampur will always be notorious as the scene of the first overt act of mutiny in 1857. The following description of the events which took place is condensed from Sir John Kaye's *History of the Sepoy War in India* (third edition, pp. 496-508):—

At Barhampur there were no European troops; there were none anywhere near to it. A regiment of native infantry, the 19th, was stationed there, with a corps of irregular cavalry, and a battery of post-guns manned by native gunners. It was not difficult to see that if these men were to rise against their English officers, and the people of Murshidábád were to fraternize with them in the name of the Nawáb, all Bengal would soon be in a blaze. No thoughts of this kind disturbed the minds of our people, but the truth was very patent to the understandings of their enemies.

At the end of January 1857, it was officially reported that the native regiments at Barrackpur, near Calcutta, were beginning to show strange symptoms of alarm or disaffection. By the first few days of February, the story of the greased cartridges was in the mouth of every sepoy at Barhampur, one hundred miles to the north. On 18th February, a detachment from the 34th, the most notoriously disloyal regiment in the Barrackpur cantonments, reached Barhampur on its way up-country in charge of stud horses. A week later, a second detachment from the same regiment arrived with a party of European convalescents. When the men of the 34th reached Barhampur, their comrades of the 19th received them with open arms and open ears. They were old associates, for not long before they had been stationed together at Lucknow; and now the 19th asked eagerly what strange story was this that they had heard from Barrackpur about the greasing of the cartridges. When the men of the 34th spoke of the general belief of the sepoys at the Presidency that the Government deliberately designed to defile them, and of the intended resistance to this fraudulent outrage, they were listened to

as men speaking with authority, for they came from the seat of Government, and were not likely to err. So the Barhampur regiment took in the story with a comprehensive faith, and was soon in that state of excitement and alarm which is so often the prelude of dangerous revolt.

The second detachment from Barrackpur arrived on the 25th February; and a parade of the 19th Regiment, 'with blank ammunition,' was ordered for the morning next but one following. But during the intervening day signs of disaffection had become apparent. The men knew that fresh supplies of ammunition had been received from Calcutta, and some of the cartridges, which had been already issued for use on the coming parade, were suspected from their novel appearance. As a matter of fact, these cartridges were not 'greased;' but the men refused to take the percussion-caps served out to them, and gave as their ground for refusal, the strong suspicion they entertained that their cartridges had been defiled. This intelligence was brought to Colonel Mitchell, who was in command at the station, before the evening had passed away. He at once started for the lines, and summoned the native officers to meet him in the front of the quarter guard. There he delivered to them a plain-spoken address, which by no means allayed their fears. He also resolved to adopt the one precaution which seemed to him calculated to prevent the crisis. Before retiring to rest for the night, he issued orders that the cavalry and artillery should also be prepared to attend the morning parade. But during that night the regiment of infantry rose in open mutiny. Ever since the colonel's interview with the native officers, the excitement had increased. He would not have spoken so angrily, they argued, if mischief had not been intended. It had transpired that the cavalry and artillery had been ordered out. Suspicions of foul play then grew into assured convictions, and a great panic seized the whole regiment. How the signal was first given is not clear. There was a common feeling of some great danger approaching through the darkness of the night. Some raised a cry of 'Fire;' some, again, said that the cavalry were galloping down on them; others thought that they heard in the distance the clatter of the artillery wheels. Then some one sounded the alarm, and there was a general rush to the bells of arms. Men seized their muskets, took forcible possession of the dreaded ammunition stored for the morning parade, and loaded their pieces in a bewilderment of uncertainty and fear. Colonel

Mitchell was roused from his sleep by the beating of drums and the confused uproar in the direction of the lines. He immediately made his way to the cavalry quarters, and ordered the troopers into the saddle, and the guns to be brought down. It was past midnight when he arrived on the parade-ground. He found the infantry in undress, but armed and belted, drawn up in line, vaguely expectant of something to come, but in no mood to provoke instant collision. There were many loaded muskets in their hands, but not one was fired. The Colonel adopted the course which, in the unfortunate conjuncture that had arisen, was undoubtedly the best. He loaded the guns, closed the cavalry upon them, and ordered the call to be sounded for an assembly of the native officers. The summons was obeyed; and again the native officers stood before their chief. They besought him not to be angry and violent, and urged that the men were ignorant and suspicious, and impelled only by their fears. They promised that the regiment should lay down its arms and return to its duty, if only the troopers and the guns were sent back. Colonel Mitchell, after some hesitation, was induced to accept their promises, and to make the further concession that the general parade of all arms, ordered for the morrow, should be countermanded. Whether the sepoys of the 19th had shown signs of penitence before this concession was made, and had or had not begun to lay down their arms, is a point of history enveloped in doubt. But it would seem that the native officers told the Colonel that the men were lodging their arms, and that he trusted to their honour. The real signal for their submission was the retrocession of the torches. When the sepoys saw the lights disappearing from the parade-ground, they knew that they were safe.

On the following morning the regiment fell in for parade, without a symptom of insubordination. The excitement of the hour had expended itself; and they looked back upon their conduct with regret, and looked forward to its consequences with alarm. Though clearly demonstrating their apprehensions by sleeping round the bells of arms, they continued to discharge their duties without any new ebullitions; and there was no appearance of any hostile combinations, by which the mutiny of a regiment might have been converted into the rebellion of a Province. Under the guidance of Colonel Macgregor, the Nawáb Názím of Bengal threw the weight of his influence into the scales on the side of order and peace; and whatsoever might have been stirring in the hearts of the Musalmán

population of Murshidábád, in the absence of any signal from their chief they remained outwardly quiescent.

This incident forms the only feature of the Sepoy Mutiny peculiar to the District of Murshidábád. The 19th Regiment was marched down to Barrackpur, to be there disbanded as a punishment for this outbreak, as has been already described in the Statistical Account of the 24 Parganás (vol. i. p. 87).

KANDI or JAMU-KANDI is situated in the south-east of the District, on its extreme border, where the river Mor or Káná enters from Bírbhúm, in 23° 58′ 0″ north latitude and 88° 5′ 1″ east longitude. According to the experimental Census of 1869, the number of houses within the town was returned at 3515, and the inhabitants at 11,148. The municipal income at the same time amounted to £501, 5s. 4d., and the expenditure to £96, 16s. 0d. The more exact Census of 1872 ascertained the total population to be 12,016, thus classified:—Hindus, males, 4770; females, 5682; total Hindus, 10,452: Muhammadans, males, 778; females, 738; total Muhammadans, 1516: Christians, none: 'others,' males, 21; females, 27; total 'others,' 48: total males, 5569; total females, 6447; grand total, 12,016. The gross municipal income for 1872, according to the District Census Compilation, was £551, 4s. 0d.; the gross municipal expenditure, £448, 4s. 0d.; and the average rate of taxation per head, 7 *ánnás* and 4 *pies*, or 11d. The present boundaries of the municipality are defined by a notification of Government, dated 21st January 1874.

Kándí is described by the Revenue Surveyor in 1860 as 'a large town containing many brick buildings and temples, about sixteen miles south-west of Barhampur, with a post office and a Munsif's Court.' Its present importance is largely due to the circumstance that it is the residence of the Rájás of Páikpárá, a very wealthy and devout Hindu family. The founder of this family was Ganga Govind Sinh, the *díwán* of Warren Hastings, who was born at Kándí, and retired thither in his old age with an immense fortune, which he devoted to the erection of shrines and images of Krishna. His name has acquired a traditional celebrity for the most magnificent *sraddha*, or funeral obsequies, ever performed in Bengal. They were celebrated in honour of his mother, and are stated to have cost twenty *lákhs* of rupees or £200,000. The guests on that occasion included the Rájás and *zamíndárs* of half the Province, and were presided over by the revered Bráhman, Síb Chandra, Rájá of

Krishnagar in Nadiyá. The Bráhmans are said to have been fed with the fresh rice of Jagannáth, brought by relays of posts from Puri to Kándi. 'Of all shrines,' continues Babu Bholanáth Chandra, in his *Travels of a Hindu* (pp. 65–67), 'the shrine at Kándi is maintained with the greatest liberality. The god here seems to live in the style of the great Mughul. His *masnad* and pillows are of the best velvet and damask richly embroidered. Before him are placed gold and silver salvers, cups, tumblers, *pán-dáns*, and jugs of various size and pattern. He is fed every morning with fifty kinds of curry, and ten kinds of pudding. His breakfast over, gold hookahs are brought to him, to smoke the most aromatic tobacco. He then retires for his noonday siesta. In the afternoon he lunches, and at night sups upon the choicest and richest viands, with new names in the vocabulary of Hindu confectionery. The daily expenses at this shrine are said to be Rs. 500 (£50), inclusive of alms and charity to the poor.' When the Bábu passed through Kándi, the *rás-játrá* festival was at its height; and fireworks, nautches, songs, and miniature representations of well-known scenes in Hindu mythology were to be observed on all hands. More than 25,000 persons were estimated to be gathered together at this *melá*, and it was said that the Rájás of Páikpárá were contributing no less than Rs. 10,000 (£1000) towards its proper celebration.

JANGIPUR, the chief town of the Subdivision of the same name, is situated on the left or east bank of the Bhágirathí, a short distance below the point where that river leaves the main stream of the Ganges, in 24° 28′ 0″ north latitude, and 88° 6′ 45″ east longitude. According to the experimental Census of 1869, the number of houses was returned at 2049, and the number of inhabitants was estimated at 7000; the municipal receipts during the year 1869-70 amounted to £660, 13s. 0d., and expenditure to £460. The regular Census of 1872 ascertained the total population to be 11,361 persons, thus classified: — Hindus, males 4012, females 3339; total Hindus, 7351: Muhammadans, males 2008, females 1988; total Muhammadans, 3996: Christians, males 10, females 4; total Christians, 14: 'others,' none: total males, 6030; total females, 5331; grand total, 11,361. The gross municipal income for 1872, according to the District Census Compilation, was £387, 14s. 0d.; the gross municipal expenditure, £332, 6s. 0d.; and the average rate of taxation, 4 *ánnás* 6 *pies* or 6¾d. per head. The present boundaries of the municipality are defined by a notification of

Government, dated 7th May 1869, and include the southern suburb of Raghunáthganj.

Jangipur, or Jahángírpur, is said to derive its name from having been founded by the Mughul emperor Jahángír. During the early years of British rule, it was an important centre of the silk trade, and the site of a commercial residency of the Company. The silk filatures here were erected as early as 1773; and in 1835, when the Company's trading monopoly ceased, they were sold to a Mr. Larulletto for £5100. In 1802, Lord Valentia described Jangipur as 'the greatest silk station of the East India Company, with 600 furnaces, and giving employment to 3000 persons.' He adds that silk then sold for Rs. 10–4 a *ser*, less than half its present price. Jangipur still continues to be an emporium of the silk trade of the Rájsháhí Division. There are extensive filatures in the neighbourhood, to which is brought for winding much of the native-produced silk from the neighbouring Districts of Rájsháhí and Maldah. But at the present day Jangipur is best known as the toll station on the Bhágirathí, where is registered all the traffic passing up and down the river. The number of boats registered here is on an average about 10,000 a year, or one-third of the entire traffic on the system called the Nadiyá rivers; and the amount of tolls levied annually is about £8000, or also one-third of the total gross revenue derived from the Nadiyá rivers. More elaborate statistics of this subject will be given subsequently, under the heading Commerce and Trade.

The above are all the municipalities concerning which full information is obtainable. The large village and police station of Daulatábád, or Daulatbázár, situated in 24° 8′ 55″ north latitude, and 88° 25′ 21″ east longitude, a few miles to the east of Murshidábád and Barhampur, has also, in conjunction with neighbouring villages, been erected into a municipality or *chaukídárí* union, under Act xx. (B.C.) of 1856. As the number of inhabitants does not exceed 5000, no details are furnished in the District Census Compilation. In 1860 it was estimated that the number of houses was 730, and the population 2336. During the year 1869-70 the municipal receipts were £87, 7s. 0d., and the expenditure was £79, 14s. 0d. The Revenue Surveyor (1857) stated that many silk-looms existed at Daulatábád, and that the village also contained a large market.

The two following villages, or aggregates of villages, are also

returned in the Census Report as containing a population of more than 5000 souls. Beldángá, in *tháná* Barwá, to the south-east of the District, situated in 23° 56′ 40″ north latitude, and 88° 18′ 8″ east longitude, a few miles away from the Bhágirathí; number of inhabitants, 6037, thus classified:—Hindus—males 1919, females 2217; total Hindus, 4136: Muhammadans—males 945, females 940; total Muhammadans, 1885: Christians—1 male: 'others'—males 6, females 9; total 'others,' 15: total males 2871, total females 3166; grand total, 6037. Margrám, situated in *tháná* Rámpur Hát, about twenty miles due west of Barhampur, near the Dwárká river, in 24° 8′ 50″ north latitude, and 87° 53′ 1″ east longitude; number of inhabitants, 5776, thus classified:—Hindus—males 1313, females 1605; total Hindus, 2918: Muhammadans—males 1331, females 1517; total Muhammadans, 2848: Christians and 'others,' none: total males 2644, total females 3122; grand total, 5766. In 1857 the Revenue Surveyor thus described Margrám:—'It is the largest town on the high ground in the Rárh or western half of the District, with a population of about 10,000 souls. Much mulberry is grown, and great numbers of silkworms reared here. There are said to be 700 weavers, who make up the silk brought in from the surrounding country. It is woven into *sáris* and pieces, and sent into Murshidábád and Jiáganj for sale.'

MINOR TOWNS.—Apart from the towns already mentioned, concerning which alone can any statistics be given, there are a considerable number of places in Murshidábád District which are of importance either commercially or historically.

JIAGANJ, situated in 24° 14′ 30″ north latitude, and 88° 18′ 31″ east longitude, on the left or eastern bank of the Bhágirathí, about three miles above the city of Murshidábád, and exactly opposite the railway station of Azímganj, is recognised as the chief seat of commerce in the District. It is most favourably situated for trade; as, in addition to its command both of the Bhágirathí and the railway, it is also the emporium to which the busy marts on the Ganges, Bhagwángolá and Dhulián, forward the produce they have received from up-country on its way to Calcutta. The Revenue Surveyor in 1857 wrote as follows:—'Jiáganj is the residence of numerous *mahájans* or native merchants, *sarráfs* (shroffs) or money-changers, and native agents, who carry on trade with Calcutta, the Upper Provinces, and the eastern Districts of Bengal. They deal chiefly in cotton, saltpetre, sugar, rice, and silk.' It is shown by the regis-

tration returns on the Ganges at Sáhibganj, that on an average of the three years ending 1874, nearly 150,000 *maunds* or 5491 tons of all sorts of goods are annually consigned to Jiáganj from Upper India. To this total there ought to be added the goods which are at the order of Jiáganj merchants, but not directly consigned to that place.

AZIMGANJ, situated in 24° 14′ 20″ north latitude, and 88° 18′ 1″ east longitude, on the right bank of the Bhágirathí facing Jiáganj, which was once regarded as a suburb of Murshidábád city, is now chiefly known as the terminus of the Nalhátí State railway. It is a great centre of passenger traffic, being the spot where all railway travellers take boat in order to reach the populous towns which line the river in this neighbourhood. It is itself rather the home of merchants than a seat of actual commerce. Jiáganj or Jangipur on the Bhágirathí, and Bhagwángolá or Dhulián on the Ganges, are the depôts to which goods are consigned, while the traders themselves reside at Azímganj. The town has long been famous for its thriving colony of Oswál and Márwárí or up-country traders, who uniformly profess the Jain religion, and whose handsome temples are conspicuous from the river. The Jain temples on the sacred mount of Párasnáth, which are fully described in the Statistical Account of the District of Hazáribágh, are largely maintained out of the contributions of the Azímganj merchants.

There is also a second place named Azímganj in the District, a village of very minor importance, situated in *tháná* Jalangí, in 24° 7′ 20″ north latitude, and 88° 35′ 46″ east longitude.

BHAGWANGOLA, as has been already mentioned in treating of the river traffic of the District, may be divided into two towns, five miles distant from each other, called New and Old Bhagwángolá. The latter was the port of Murshidábád during the Muhammadan rule, and is still much resorted to when the Ganges is in flood. It is now a police station, and is situated in 24° 20′ 0″ north latitude, and 88° 20′ 38″ east longitude. At all other seasons of the year, boats can only reach New Bhagwángolá; for the main stream of the Ganges has lately shifted about five miles to the westward, and the course of trade has been compelled to follow. The new town is sometimes called Alátalí, and is a great depôt for up-country commodities, especially indigo-seed. The scene was thus described by Bishop Heber:—'The small but neat mat-houses are scattered over a large green common, fenced off from the river by a high grassy

mound, which forms an excellent dry walk, bordered with mango-trees, bamboos, and the date palm, as well as some fine banians. The common was covered with children and cattle; a considerable number of boats were on the beach; different musical instruments were strumming, thumping, squealing, and rattling from some of the open sheds; and the whole place exhibited a cheerfulness and an activity and bustle which were extremely interesting and pleasing.' Speaking of Old Bhagwángolá, the Rev. J. Long observes that 'the neighbourhood must once have been exceedingly populous, as there are evident remains of a very extensive town or series of large villages, now overgrown with jungle, and dotted with numerous tanks and other signs of population.'

DHULIAN, also on the Ganges, is the site of an annual fair, and one of the most important river marts in the District. It is not, however, marked in the ordinary maps. The Sáhibganj register of the Ganges-borne traffic, which will be given in detail on a subsequent page in connection with the Trade and Commerce of the District shows that Dhulián heads all the Murshidábád marts both in its exports and imports.

MURARAI, a railway station in the west of the District, in Palsá *tháná*, not far from the boundary of the Santál Parganás, was but an insignificant hamlet until the opening of the East Indian Railway. It is now, perhaps, the principal centre of the rice trade in Murshidábád; and from it is despatched to Calcutta the greater part of the *áman* crop, which is almost exclusively produced in the Rárh or western half of the District.

Among other places which carry on a brisk trade may be mentioned Khágrá, the port of Barhampur; Chhápghátí, noted for its timber yards; Raghunáthganj, the southern suburb of Jangipur and a police station, situated in 24° 27′ 48″ north latitude, and 88° 6′ 36″ east longitude, where there is an annual fair; Báluchar; Pátiboná; Sálkap.

LARGE VILLAGES.—The following villages, in which police stations have been placed, are also of some importance. Sujáganj, 24° 6′ 2″ north latitude, and 88° 17′ 53″ east longitude, and Gorá-bázár, 24° 5′ 20″ north latitude, and 88° 17′ 11″ east longitude, are both suburbs of Barhampur. Barwá, 23° 56′ 20″ north latitude, and 88° 16′ 55″ east longitude, lies in the south of the District, not far from the large village of Beldángá. Nawádá, 23° 54′ 5″ north latitude, and 88° 30′ 20″ east longitude, and Jalangí, 24° 8′ 10″ north latitude, and

88° 44′ 35″ east longitude, are both situated on the Jalangí river, in the extreme south-east of the District. Hariharpárá or Harípárá, 24° 2′ 35″ north latitude, and 88° 27′ 58″ east longitude, and Gowás, 24° 10′ 4″ north latitude, and 88° 32′ 10″ east longitude, are both situated to the east of the civil station of Barhampur. Díwánsarái, 24° 23′ 8″ north latitude, and 88° 16′ 25″ east longitude, is situated towards the north-east of the District, midway between the Ganges and the Bhágirathí. Kaliánganj, 24° 9′ 20″ north latitude, and 88° 7′ 53″ east longitude, is situated in the centre of the District, due west of the town of Murshidábád. Asánpur, 24° 14′ 50″ north latitude, and 88° 17′ 10″ east longitude, and Mánullábázár, 24° 14′ 0″ north latitude, and 88° 18′ 33″ east longitude, are situated in the centre of the District on opposite sides of the Bhágirathí; the one being a suburb of Azímganj, and the other of Jiáganj. Sháhnagar, 24° 10′ 20″ north latitude, and 88° 19′ 1″ east longitude, is the southern suburb of Murshidábád, and gives its name to the *tháná* which includes the greater part of the city. Rámpur-Hát, 24° 8′ 50″ north latitude, and 87° 49′ 36″ east longitude, now the seat of a Subdivisional station, is situated in the extreme west of the District, and has a station on the East Indian Railway. Gokaran, 24° 2′ 35″ north latitude, and 88° 9′ 30″ east longitude; Khárgáon, 24° 1′ 53″ north latitude, and 88° 2′ 3″ east longitude, in the neighbourhood of which are several extensive swamps; and Bharatpur, 23° 53′ 15″ north latitude, and 88° 7′ 31″ east longitude, on the banks of the Kuiyá river, all three lie in the old Subdivision of Kándí to the south-west of the District. Mirzápur, 24° 24′ 20″ north latitude, and 88° 6′ 51″ east longitude, situated in the north centre of the District, a little to the west of the Bhágirathí, was formerly a populous village, with a flourishing colony of weavers; but now, owing to the decay of that industry, and still more to a virulent outbreak of malarious fever, the place is much decayed. Palsá, 24° 28′ 50″ north latitude, and 87° 54′ 21″ east longitude, is situated in the north-west of the District, close to the important railway station of Murárai. Sútí, 24° 35′ 20″ north latitude, and 88° 6′ 8″ east longitude, is situated in the north-east of the District, on the Ganges, at the point where it is usually recognised that the Bhágirathí branches off. This spot has always been the scene of great fluvial changes, and the present village of Sútí is only in name identical with that which has attained celebrity in history. The Revenue Surveyor relates, that in the great flood of 1856 a large portion of the village was washed away.

Shamsherganj lies in the extreme north of the District, on the banks of the Ganges.

BELIA NARAYANPUR, a large village on the right bank of the Páglá *nadí*, lying on the extreme west of the District, in the tract of country which has lately been transferred from Bírbhúm, was thus described by the Revenue Surveyor in 1857:—'Beliá Náráyanpur is a market for iron ore brought from Bírbhúm District. Sixty-two furnaces are worked here, smelting and reducing the ore. The beds from which the furnaces are supplied, though extending for thirty miles north and south, have been (upon examination by the Government Geological Surveyor) pronounced unfit for extensive use. His words are:—"The absence of economical fuel, combined with the scanty supply of ore, at once determines the inapplicability of any extensive lines of operations for smelting and manufacturing iron in the District of Bírbhúm."' A further description of this iron-bearing tract, together with copious extracts from the report of the Geological Surveyor, will be found in the Statistical Account of the District of Bírbhúm, vol. v. pp. 318-322. It is there stated that Beliá Náráyanpur is the largest and most important of the villages which have ironworks, and that in 1852 the number of the furnaces it contained was about thirty.

PLACES OF HISTORICAL INTEREST.—KASIMBAZAR, situated in 24° 7′ 40″ north latitude, and 88° 19′ 0″ east longitude, the site of which is now a swamp marked by a few ruins, may lay claim to an historical interest even superior to that of the city of Murshidábád. Long before the days of Murshid Kulí Khán, the trade of Bengal was centred at Kásimbázár. Here the European nations had their factories from the earliest times. The common name for the Bhágirathí in English history down to the present century was the Kásimbázár river; and the triangular tract of country enclosed by the Bhágirathí, the Ganges, and the Jalangí, was always known in early days as the island of Kásimbázár. But about the year 1813, the river, which had brought wealth and fame to the town, suddenly deserted its old bed, and instead of following its former bend to the east, took a sweep to the west. The channel in front of the warehouses of Kásimbázár was at once turned into a stagnant pool, which has now become a pestiferous *bíl*, while the Bhágirathí at present flows three miles away.

Kásimbázár is said to be so called from a legendary founder, Kásim Khán. Its history cannot be traced back beyond the seven-

teenth century, but even when first mentioned it appears as a place of great consequence. After Satgáon had been ruined by the silting up of its river, and before Calcutta had yet attracted the trade of the Gangetic valley, Kásimbázár was the great emporium of Lower Bengal. The Rev. J. Long, in his essay in the *Calcutta Review*, entitled 'The Banks of the Bhágirathí,' quotes from Bruton as writing in 1632 :—'The city of Kásimbázár, where the Europeans have their factories, the country affording great quantities of silk and muslin.' The same authority states that an English commercial agent was first appointed to Kásimbázár in 1658; and that in 1657, it was required that the Chief at this place should be a Member of Council. In 1686, the factory at Kásimbázár, in common with all the other English factories in Bengal, was confiscated by order of the Nawáb Shaistá Khán. Apart from this incident, Kásimbázár had before the close of the seventeenth century become the leading English commercial agency in Bengal. In 1681, when Job Charnock, the future founder of Calcutta, was Chief here, out of £230,000 sent out by the East India Company as 'investment' to Bengal, £140,000 was assigned to Kásimbázár. In 1763, it appears that out of a total of £400,000 required as 'advances for investment,' the Kásimbázár *aurangs* demanded £90,000, or as much as any other two agencies excepting Calcutta itself. Colonel Rennel (*cir.* 1779) wrote as follows :—'Kásimbázár has grown rich by the ruin of Maldah and Rájmahal. It is the general market of Bengal silk, and a great quantity of silk and cotton stuffs are manufactured here, which are circulated throughout great part of Asia; of the unwrought silk, 300,000 or 400,000 lbs. weight is consumed in the European manufactories.' The filatures and machinery of the Company were estimated to be worth twenty *lákhs* of rupees, or £200,000. According to the native tradition, the town was so studded with buildings that the streets never saw the rays of the sun. The factory of Kásimbázár owed much of its wealth, and all its political importance, to its close neighbourhood to the Muhammadan capital of Murshidábád. But from the same cause it was liable to constant danger. It was a matter of common occurrence for the Nawáb to order out his troops and blockade the walled factory, whenever he had any occasion of quarrel with the English Council at Calcutta. It followed, therefore, that the duties of the Chief of Kásimbázár were always diplomatic as much as commercial; and it was through him that negotiations were conducted not only with the Nawáb of Bengal,

but also with the Mughul Emperor at Dehli. It was while occupied as commercial assistant at Kásimbázár, that Warren Hastings was first induced to progress in the study of the Persian language. In 1757, when the Nawáb Siráj-ud-Daulá resolved to drive the English out of Bengal, Kásimbázár felt the first effects of his anger. The fortified factory was taken without resistance, and the Englishmen, including Mr. Watts the Resident, and Warren Hastings, were sent in close custody to Murshidábád. After the battle of Plassey, Kásimbázár regained its commercial importance, though it was at first proposed to transfer the factory to Barhampur; but all political power was henceforth placed in the hands of the Agent at the Court of the Nawáb, who lived at Mutijhil. The Commercial Resident enjoyed a salary of Rs. 50,160 per annum, a very large sum for those days, and was in addition permitted the profits of private trade. It is said that Mr. Bolts, who was factor here, and afterwards a notorious member of Council at Calcutta, made by trade, between 1760 and 1767, no less than nine *lákhs* of rupees, or nearly £100,000.

Kásimbázár was in its early days celebrated for the salubrity of its climate. Captain Hamilton, who visited Bengal at the beginning of the 18th century, mentions in *A New Account of the East Indies* (vol. ii. p. 21), that 'the country about Kásimbázár is very healthful and fruitful, and produces industrious people, who cultivate many valuable manufactures.' Orme, in his *Military History of Hindustán*, treating of the months immediately following the battle of Plassey in 1757, states that out of the English troops quartered at Calcutta and Chandarnagar, two-thirds were in hospital, owing to the intemperance produced by the distribution of the prize-money; while of 250 men at Kásimbázár, 240 had been preserved by the excellency of the climate from the effects of at least equal intemperance. In 1768 it was recommended that European troops should not be brought nearer to Calcutta than Kásimbázár, on account of the climate lower down the river being so unfavourable to the health of Europeans. The Government Records, edited by Mr. Long, contain an application to the Council from a writer at Calcutta, dated March 1763, 'requesting permission to go to Kásimbázár for the recovery of his health.' But it would seem that, in the beginning of the present century, a change took place for the worse. The margin of cultivation receded, and wild beasts increased. Lord Valentia, in 1802, states that there were then no tigers in the neighbourhood, owing to

the increase of population, and the Government reward of Rs. 10 per head. In 1811, however, a traveller writes :—'Kásimbázár is noted for its silk, hosiery, *korás*, and inimitable ivory work; but as to the greater part of its surface, it is a wilderness inhabited only by beasts of prey. At eleven or twelve miles from Barhampur, an almost impervious jungle extends for a considerable space, denying entrance to all but tigers.' It was just two years after the latter date, that is, in 1813, that the change which has been already mentioned took place in the course of the Bhágirathí. The trade of Kásimbázár was immediately ruined, and the climate of the place most seriously affected. The old bed of the river was turned into a marsh, and the water became stagnant. A malarious fever, generated by these conditions, broke out in the following year, and the place gradually became depopulated. According to local tradition, the entire population was swept away within a twelvemonth, and thus an exact parallel is furnished to the legendary destruction of Gaur. But as a matter of fact, the filatures of Kásimbázár continued to work until a much later period, though all the ancient importance of the town was gone, and only ceased at last from the successful competition of the cheaper cotton goods of Manchester. Thornton's *Gazetteer* states that, 'by a careful Census in 1829, the number of houses was estimated at 1300; and the inhabitants at 3538; of whom 2213 were Hindus, and 1325 Muhammadans.' It is still the seat of the wealthiest Hindu family in the District, represented by the charitable Ráni Swarnamayi, but otherwise it is quite deserted. Ruins of huge buildings and broad mounds of earth alone remain to attest its former magnificence. It is said that the houses of the rising town of Barhampur were to a great extent constructed out of these ruins. The chief traces of European occupation that now remain are mouldering tombstones. The scene is thus described by the Revenue Surveyor (1857) :—'Three miles north-east of the Station of Barhampur are the ruins of the Residency and silk filatures of Kásimbázár. In a small graveyard attached to the old Residency compound, lie the remains of many connected with the early days of the Company's government. Amongst others is the tomb of the first wife and infant daughter of Warren Hastings, which bears date 11th July 1759. Some old memorial slabs have also been dug out of the bank or mound, apparently part of an old fortification, to the north of the ruins of the Residency. One slab to the memory of Mrs. Charles Adams is inscribed with the date, 29th May 1741.'

KALKAPUR, a little to the west of the English Residency, was the name of the old Dutch factory at Kásimbázár. It has now disappeared from the map, but so late as 1857 it was mentioned by the Revenue Surveyor as the site of a *thánd* or police station. 'The Dutch fortifications were taken possession of by a party of the Company's troops under Colonel Ironsides in July 1781, by order of Warren Hastings. In the burial-ground attached, forty-seven monuments still exist; the oldest is that of Daniel von der Muyz, dated 16th May 1725.'

SAIDABAD was the site of the French factory, and also the home of the Armenian merchants of Kásimbázár. A small area of ground here 'belonging to the French,' says Mr. Long, 'is marked by ruined walls and an old flagstaff, and still (1846) called Fárásdángá (French land); but the native population have withdrawn to the more profitable settlements of Khágrá and Gorá-bázár,' the northern port and the southern suburb of Barhampur. The great Dupleix was at one time resident here. In modern times Saidábád is best known for its native distilleries, which supply the greater portion of the District with spirits. 'Not far off are the remains of a Roman Catholic chapel and a nunnery, surrounded by a brick wall; but no signs of any tombs exist. Farther to the west stands the Armenian church with a high square tower, priest's house, and burying-ground, enclosed in one compound. These buildings are kept in excellent order, forming a strange contrast to the places mentioned above. The Armenian priest is relieved by another from Armenia every fifth year. The church was built by Mr. Peter Aratoon, in the year 1758.'

BADRIHAT or GHIASABAD, situated on the right or western bank of the Bhágirathí, a few miles above Azímganj, in 24° 17′ 33″ north latitude, and 88° 16′ 41″ east longitude, is now an unimportant police station; but, in conjunction with Rángámátí, it carries back the history of Murshidábád District to a period antecedent to the Musalmán conquest of Bengal. Both these places are situated upon the elevated yellow clay which forms the western boundary of the Gangetic delta, and marks the original bank of the Ganges. At Badrihát may be traced the ruins of an ancient city, extending on the high ground several miles away from the river. Here have been found the remains of a fort or palace, carved stones and pillars engraved in the Páli character, gold coins, and much broken pottery. These relics, of which some have been preserved in the museum of the Asiatic Society, sufficiently attest the great antiquity of the place;

but no evidence, either traditional or historic, has yet been obtained to throw light upon the inhabitants, or upon the dynasty that reigned here. It has only been conjectured that the Páli inscriptions point to the Buddhist period. Badrihát was the old Hindu name, which is still preserved in the official name of the *thánd*. The conquering Muhammadans altered it to Ghiásábád, after Ghiás-ud-dín, one of the Pathán kings of Gaur, who is said to be buried on the spot.

RANGAMATI is also situated on the right bank of the Bhágirathí, four miles below Barhampur, in 24° 1′ 10″ north latitude, and 88° 13′ 11″ east longitude. The yellow clay here rises into cliffs or bluffs forty feet high, which form the only elevated ground in the neighbourhood, and are very conspicuous from the river. Few remains have been found except pottery and the traces of buildings, tanks, and wells; but Rángámátí is abundantly rich in traditional history. The legend respecting the origin of the name, which means red earth, is that Bibisan, brother of Ravana, being invited to a feast by a poor Bráhman at Rángámátí, rained gold on the ground as a token of gratitude. By others the miracle is referred to Bhu Deb, who, through the power of his *tapasya*, rained gold. Captain F. Wilford, in *The Transactions of the Asiatic Society* (vol. ix. p. 89), states:—'Rángámátí was formerly called Oresphonta Hararpana, *i.e.* ground consecrated to Hara or Siva. Here was once a place of worship dedicated to Mahádeva or Hara, with an extensive tract of ground appropriated to the worship of the god; but the Ganges having destroyed the place of worship, and the holy ground having been resumed during the invasions of the Musalmáns, it is now entirely neglected, and the emblem of the god has been removed to a great distance from the river. The poets have called the town Kusumapurí, an epithet applied to other favourite cities.' With regard to the history, if it can be so termed, of Rángámátí, Captain Wilford writes as follows:—'Tradition says that the king of Lánká, which implies either the country of the Mahárájá of Tapage or Ceylon (probably the former), invaded Bengal with a powerful fleet, and sailed up the Ganges as far as Rángámátí, then called Kusumapurí, and a considerable place, where the king or Mahárájá often resided. The invaders plundered the country and destroyed the city. This happened long before the invasion of Bengal by the Muhammadans in 1204 A.D.' Captain Layard, in *The Asiatic Society's Journal*, No. 3, 1853, says:—'Rángámátí, anciently named the city of Kansonapurí (*sic*), is said to have been built many hun-

dreds of years ago by a famous Mahárájá of Bengal, named Kurun Sen, who resided chiefly at Gaur. Many interesting spots, connected with legends and traditions of the ancient city, are still pointed out, such as the Demon's Mount and the Rájbárí or palace of Kurun Sen. The remains of the greater part of the Rájbárí are distinctly traceable on three sides, although now under cultivation; the fourth has disappeared in the river. On the eastern face of the Rájbárí, there stood, a few years ago, the ruins of a very old gateway, with two large entrances, called by the people of the neighbouring village of Jadupur, *burj*, or the tower. It has now entirely disappeared, having crumbled away with the falling bank into the rapid stream below.' Mr. Long, in his essay on 'The Banks of the Bhágirathí,' states that Rángámátí formed one of the ten *faujdáris* into which Bengal was divided under the Musalmán rule. Its Hindu *zamíndár* was a considerable person; and on the occasion of the great Punyá at Mutijhil in 1767, received a *khilát* worth Rs. 7278, or as much as the *zamíndár* of Nadiyá. The site of Rángámátí was once selected, in preference to Barhampur, as being a high and healthy spot for the erection of barracks. It is still (1846) resorted to as a sanatarium, and is a favourite place for picnic parties and shooting excursions; snipe and partridge abound. The undulations of the land and the general scenery reminded Mr. Long of England. The East India Company had once a silk factory at Rángámátí, which was sold in 1835, together with 1500 *bighás* of land attached to it, for £2100.

NALHATI, situated in 24° 17′ 50″ north latitude, and 87° 51′ 11″ east longitude, also possesses reminiscences of the old days of Hindu independence. It is traditionally said to have been the capital of a Hindu monarch, Rájá Nala, the ruins of whose palace are still traceable on a hillock close to the town, called *nalhátí zilá*. Here also is said to have been fought a sanguinary battle between the Rájá and the conquering Musalmáns. Nalhátí is now a police station, and a railway junction whence the State railway to Azímganj branches out from the main loop line of the East India Company.

GHERIA, which lies on the alluvial plain south of Súrí, at the angle formed by the departure of the Bhágirathí from the main stream of the Ganges, has been the scene of two decisive battles. The first of these was fought in 1740, and in its result gave to the conqueror the throne of Bengal; the second in 1763, on which occasion a Muhammadan army for the last time in Bengal boldly faced British

troops. In the earlier battle, Sarfaráz Khán, the third Nawáb of Murshidábád, and the last of the lineal descendants of Murshid Kulí, was defeated and slain by Alí Vardí Khán, who had rebelled and advanced against him from his government in Behar. An Urdu poem celebrates the victory, in which the result of the fight is mainly attributed to the miraculous valour of Ghiás Khán, the general of Alí Vardí, who lost his life on the field. Alí Vardí built a *dargah* over his valiant soldier's tomb, and the spot is still known as Ghiás Khán's Dargah. The battle of 1763 was fought between the English, who numbered 750 Europeans and 2000 *sipáhis*, with a few guns and some native cavalry, commanded by Major Adams of the 84th Regiment; and the army of Mír Kásim, which was composed of 12 battalions of *sipáhis*, 15,000 horse, and 12 cannon. The engagement was sharply contested for four hours, for the troops of the Nawáb had been carefully trained in the European discipline by Samru, the notorious German renegade. The enemy, at one time, broke part of the English line, gained possession of two guns, and attacked the 84th Regiment in front and rear. But in the end, the English victory was complete; all the cannon were captured, together with 150 boats laden with provision. Mír Kásim fled towards Monghyr; and never since this date has Bengal proper witnessed a pitched battle.

Fairs and Religious Gatherings.—The following is a list of the principal fairs in the District of Murshidábád:—(1) Chaltiá-maltiá *melá*. This fair is held at a spot about a mile south of Barhampur, commencing on the 9th day of the month of Chaitra, or March–April, and lasts for about thirty days. The daily attendance may amount to 1000 persons. The staple articles of commerce at this fair, as well as at the following gatherings, are country-made metallic utensils, stone plates and cups, *páti* mats, vegetables of all kinds, sweetmeats, wooden furniture, etc. etc. Ráma is the god in whose honour this assemblage takes place. (2) Sharveswar *melá* is held at Dhulián in April, in honour of the god Siva. It lasts for eight days, and is attended by as many as 5000 people. (3) Tulsibihár *melá* takes place in May, at Raghunáthganj, the southern suburb of Jangipur. It attracts nearly 10,000 people, is held in May, and continues for nearly a month. Krishna is here the object of adoration. (4) Jayadeva Thákur's *melá* is held at Ságar-dighí in *thánd* Badrihát, where there is a large tank. It takes place in the month of January. From 100 to 150 shopkeepers assemble here, and stay

for nearly fifteen days. The daily attendance is computed to be 500 persons. (5) Kápíleswar *melá* is held in May at a place called Sáktipur, in honour of Kápíleswar, one of the many names of Siva. The attendance is about 5000 persons. There are also other fairs of less note, such as Ananta Baruah's *melá* at Mangalpur in December; Rámnabarni *melá* at Mirzápur in March; Kriteswarí *melá* at Kriteswar, to the west of Murshidábád city.

Besides these fairs, large gatherings of pilgrims may be observed during the Ganges bathing seasons, at all the principal *ghát*s on the banks of the Bhágirathí.

VILLAGE OFFICIALS.—The following paragraphs are taken from a report signed by the Commissioner of the Rájsháhí Division, and dated 24th January 1873, regarding the indigenous agency brought to light in the course of the Census operations :—

'MANDALS.—The institution of village *mandals* is general throughout the District of Murshidábád. The *mandals* of former generations exercised far greater powers than the persons who now bear that name. One of the chief reasons for this change is the increasing influence and the more centralized powers of the *zamíndár*. The Magistrate assigns as another cause, that, in many of the agricultural villages in the interior, there are now persons unconnected with agriculture who hold a social position far higher than the village *mandals*, and over whom the latter exercise no authority whatever. The Magistrate says that the *mandal* of the village is by no means always the most substantial *rayat*; as in some cases the present holder of the office may have acquired it by descent, while the lands, which may have made his ancestor the head-man of the village, have passed away from the family. In extreme cases of this kind, a man is titular *mandal* only. This was found in one case, where the grandfather had been a man of comparative wealth, but the lands had melted away; and though the grandson is still called a *mandal* after his ancestor, another person has been appointed by the *rayats*, and is the real head-man of the village. As a general rule, the *mandal's* appointment is hereditary. A *mandal* who has a son of good character and intelligence, and of sufficient age to undertake the duties, would at his death be succeeded by that son. It is further stated by some, that if a *mandal's* son is a minor at the time of his death, he succeeds to the office on his attaining full age; and during his minority some of his relatives perform the duty. The reports received by the Magistrate are conflicting as to the

authority by which a *mandal* is appointed. The subdivisional officers at Kándi and Jangipur informed him that the *zamíndár* nominates; but from personal inquiries he has found that the *rayats* have a very considerable voice in the matter, if not the exclusive right of appointment. The powers of the *mandals* are stated to have been considerably curtailed of late years, and their emoluments reduced. In one village the Magistrate found that the *mandal* enjoyed two *bighás* of land rent-free; but such cases, he states, are exceptional. As a general rule, a *mandal* is treated more leniently than other *rayats* in the matter of rates; and at the time of the *punyá* (the first day on which the rents of a new year are collected) he has the privilege of paying his rent first, and of receiving from the landlord a garland and some sweetmeat. In villages which belong to several proprietors, there are, as a rule, as many *mandals* as there are proprietors.

'KOTALS (or *kotwáls*).—Besides the *mandals*, there are in some villages persons called *kotáls*, who occupy a far inferior position. The word *kotál* is said to be a corruption of the Sanskrit word *koshápálá*, which means a warder; and it is supposed that the ancestors or former representatives of the present *kotáls* held the office of warders under the ancient Hindu kings, and were remunerated by grants of lands. Some of the existing *kotáls* still hold lands, and are generally of the same position as the *chaukidárs*. Except the *kotáls*, no traces of the old police organization are found to exist in the District. The existing *kotáls* are stated by the Magistrate to be generally of a low position and of deficient intelligence, and to have been of no use in taking the Census.' Some further information concerning these persons has been given under the name Kotál, No. 46 in the list of Hindu castes (p. 52).

'PANCHAYATS.—There are no *panchávats* in the District regularly established. When any question of caste, the division of family property, or the like arises, a *panchávat* is formed, of which the *mandal* is naturally a member. As a rule, the decisions of these tribunals are respected.

'PATWARIS.—There are also no *patwáris* in the District, in the sense in which the word is used in the old Regulations. The present *patwáris* are merely servants of the *zamíndárs*, employed in collecting rent from the *rayats*.'

MATERIAL CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE.—In the Bengal Administration Report for 1872-73, it is stated that the condition of the

people in Murshidábád is less prosperous than in the other Districts of the Rájsháhí Division. The fact is undoubted, and is borne out by many convergent lines of evidence, though it would be hard to find the real explanation of it. The soil is at least as fertile as elsewhere, and the cultivation of the mulberry is common, which usually raises the peasants into a state of comparative affluence. Rents also are low, rarely exceeding R. 1 per *bighá* for paddy land, and often falling below it. But food seems to be dearer, and labour cheaper, than in the neighbouring Districts. The cultivators are much under the power of the *mahájan*, or village money-lender; and the very lowest stratum of the population, who live on wages, are especially miserable.

DRESS.—The ordinary in-door dress of a well-to-do shopkeeper consists merely of a *dhutí*. His out-door dress, supposing him to be a Bengalí Hindu, is a *dhutí*, a *chádar*, and a pair of shoes, with the occasional addition of a *pirán*, or cotton shirt, and sometimes a jacket. Many of the town shopkeepers in this District are up-country men, who wear in addition to the *dhutí* a *chapkán*, or tunic, and a turban. A Musalmán in the same class of life wears a pair of loose trousers, a *pirán*, and a cap. These articles are made of linen or calico.

The ordinary dress of a peasant, whether in-doors or out of doors, is a simple *dhutí* of the coarsest cotton.

DWELLINGS.—The Census of 1872 returned the total number of houses of all sorts in the District at 303,561. The Revenue Surveyor in 1857, on a somewhat smaller area, gave the number as 220,014, thus subdivided :—*pakká*, or made of brick, 7331; *kachchá*, or grass-roofed, with mud or grass walls, 212,683. He thus describes the general mode of living followed by the people :—'The huts of the poorer classes, in the north-west portion of Murshidábád District, are built with mud walls, and thatched with rice straw. In other parts of the District, a framework house of bamboo is usually made first. The floor is then raised of mud well rammed to the necessary height, to afford protection from inundation. In some places the walls are then raised of mud, enclosing the uprights; in others, plaited grass or matting, or slips of bamboo, are used instead of mud, and are sometimes covered again with a coating of clay and cow-dung. Sometimes the gable ends are left open at the top for ventilation, but the generality are closed up. In the low lands near the Ganges, the houses are very temporary constructions. A light thatch and lighter walls, unraised, suffice for the wants of the

inhabitants, who remove their property, house and all, as soon as the river waters rise high enough to top their *chárpáis* (bedsteads). Nearly every one of the permanent villages is buried in a thick jungle of bamboos, trees, underwood, and long rank weeds and creepers. If, on raising a new village, the people do not find trees available to build under, they plant them of all kinds to afford to themselves shade, and to their frail tenements protection from storms and the strong north-westers which precede the rains. The humidity of the atmosphere and rich soil soon supply a flourishing crop of brushwood, grass, and gigantic weeds of all kinds. Holes are dug in all directions for earth to raise the houses. These, filled with water by the first rains, supply each man with water at his door if he wishes it. Then, in course of time, when the jungle is full-grown, the wind totally excluded, and the pools of stagnant water are coated over with thick green *confervæ*, the Bengalí may be seen enjoying himself, and keeping out the mosquitoes by filling the inside of the house with smoke. Easily contented, lazy, and not over-burdened with wealth, the peasants choose the evils they consider the least, and habit accustoms them to look on their village as perfection. They offer a strong contrast in their choice of sites to the Santáls, their neighbours, some of whom are domiciled in the north-west of the District. These latter invariably select the highest and driest spots for their villages, and carefully cut and keep down every particle of jungle in and about them, growing only a few useful trees in the long central road, either for shade, fruit, or oil-seed. Each Santál's house is a complete little farm enclosure, holding the owner's dwelling-house, granary, cow and pigeon-houses, and pig-sty. Their villages extend in one long line, with houses built on each side of the road; the head-man or *mánjhi's* house being generally in the centre. The *charak-pujá*, or swinging festival, appears to be the only ceremony that this people has adopted from the Hindus. Nearly every village has its swinging-pole hard by. The Santáls never acknowledge taking a swing themselves, even in a drunken frolic; but they dance round the pole and enjoy the fun of seeing low-caste Hindus swing.'

The materials for house-building are thus described by the Deputy-Collector, in the case of a respectable shopkeeper:—Straw and bamboo for the thatch, mud and bricks for the walls of the rooms, and brick for the outer wall enclosing the house. A brick outer wall, however, is not to be found in all cases; and sometimes the whole

house is of brick, with mud cement. The number of rooms varies from three to six or seven; and the more costly the materials, the fewer will be the rooms. The building materials of the peasant are bamboo, mud, straw, reed, jute-string, etc.; never brick. The walls are of mud; the thatch of bamboo or straw; the posts of bamboo. In parts of the District where bamboos cannot be had, slips of the palm wood are substituted. The number of rooms varies from two to five.

FURNITURE.—In a good brick house, such as has been assigned to the shopkeeper, the following furniture would be found:—A *takta-posh* or wooden bedstead; a variety of wooden boxes and chests; several clothes-racks of the country kind, being often made of bamboo, highly ornamented with cowrie shells, and hung up by each end from the roof; low and broad stools, used for various purposes; a few *morás* or cane seats lying about; *pilsuj*, or brazen stands for earthen lamps; small *sátránjis*, or coarse cotton carpets; brass ware of all sorts for cooking and for use at meals; and a few ugly pictures of idols, never costing more than a few *pice* each.

The furniture in a peasant's house is little more than a few pots; even a bedstead is rare.

FOOD.—The food of a respectable shopkeeper comprises rice, pulse or *dál*, potatoes, fish, a variety of herbs, milk occasionally, and *báigun* or egg-fruit, *pátál*, and common fruits, such as mango or jack, in their season. The average expenses of a medium-sized household in this class of society are estimated by the Deputy-Collector at about Rs. 25 per month, or £30 a year. The ordinary food of a peasant is confined to coarse rice and *dál*, with fish or fresh vegetables as occasional luxuries. The cost of his household may be put down at about Rs. 7 per month, or £8, 8s. od. a year.

AGRICULTURE.—The general agricultural aspect of Murshidábád District was thus described by the Revenue Surveyor in 1857:—'The country is highly cultivated throughout; and except in the village and town sites and environs, the few basaltic hills above mentioned, and a few patches of jungle in the west and north-west, there is but little uncultivated land. All the soil available, even the beds and banks of the *nálás* and *bíls* as they dry up, is tilled to the fullest extent. The fields of the high land are almost exclusively devoted to the production of rice. The land, where sloping, is terraced out, each field having a bank around it to retain the water for the rice crop. When rain is deficient, the fields in the vicinity of tanks,

which abound in this portion of the District, are irrigated from them. This part of the country is prettily wooded with mango, banyan, *pipal*, *sakuá*, and palm trees, and on some uncultivated patches of land, custard. Apple and *gáman* bushes form a thick underwood. The produce of the northern low lands, and indeed of the remainder of the District, consists of abundant and luxuriant crops of different kinds of paddy, gram, peas, mustard, cummin, different kinds of pulse, mulberry, indigo, *pán*, yams; and in the vicinity of villages, different sorts of native vegetables. In the Bágri, or eastern half, large crops of red chillies are also grown. The principal trees are those above enumerated, together with *bábul*, jack, *safriám*, tamarind, *papáya*, *bel*, *kath*, *guluriá*, plantain, *jamulgotá*, *asán*, fan-leaf palm, and date trees. In the vicinity of *bíls*, *boro dhán*, a coarse-grained red rice, is planted largely. As the *bíl* water dries up, this is transplanted into the *bíl* lands, and afterwards cut and stored in the latter end of March and April. The long sloping banks of *nálás* and *kháls* yield good crops of mustard, wheat, and other grains. The richest soil, and that least liable from height or locality to inundation, is chosen for the cultivation of the mulberry. The fields thus appropriated require a fresh layer of good earth every second year. In the course of years they thus become raised above the surrounding country five and six feet high, still further securing the young plants from being drowned by the lodgment of water. The average rent of such land is from three to five times that of any other, except in the case of the *pán* gardens, which bring the highest rent of all, very rich soil well raised, and good shade, being required for the growth of *pán*. Of late years, owing to the increased demand for mulberry leaf, large tracts of low land have been taken into cultivation for this plant. Hence the great loss to mulberry growers during the inundation of 1856, when acres of plants were entirely destroyed. Sugar-cane cultivation is carried on to a small extent in the west and south-west; but the cane does not appear of good quality. Date trees are chiefly cultivated for the preparation of spirits, but little date sugar being made in the District.'

The Collector thus describes the manner in which the cultivation is determined into two distinct forms by the natural conformation of the country:—'The whole District of Murshidábád, with the exception of the portion which lies to the north of the entrance of the Bhágirathí, is divided into two tracts of nearly equal size by that river. The characteristics of these two divisions of the District, as

to the appearance of the country, the kind of crops cultivated, and the sort of weather required for the harvest, are quite distinct. The eastern half of the District is, as a rule, low, and subject to inundation. The rice crop generally grown is the *áus* or early one; and abundant cold-weather crops are produced. In the western portion, on the other hand, and in *tháná* Shamsherganj and the northern part of *tháná* Súti, the land is generally high, but intersected with numerous *bils* and old beds of rivers. The rice crop is the *áman* or winter one, and the cold-weather crops are few. Indeed, apart from sugar-cane, mulberry, some safflower, and a few other crops, nothing whatever is grown but *áman* rice. Owing to the differences of situation and surface, and of the nature of the crops grown, these two portions of the District are differently affected by the weather. Thus, for the eastern half, early rains are needed in April and May for the proper cultivation of the *áus* crop, and steady but not too heavy falls until the crop is reaped in August; a too early break-up of the rains is undesirable, as also are very heavy falls when the cold-weather crops are in the ground; and, finally, some rain is wanted during the cold season. For the great staple of the western half of the District it is not so important that there should be early rain, though it is, no doubt, of advantage that the land should be prepared in good time for the reception of the seed. What is wanted above all, is steady rain in the months of July, August, September, and the early part of October, without long intervals of dry, scorching weather. This is especially the case when the seedlings have been transplanted from the nurseries, where that mode of cultivation is adopted.'

Rice forms the staple crop in Murshidábád District, as elsewhere in Bengal. The rice crop is divided into four great classes, known as *áus*, *áman*, *boro*, and *jáli*. The *áus* crop, which is sometimes also called *bhadaí*, from the name of the month in which it is reaped, is sown in April and May, and harvested in August and September. It is a coarse kind of rice, and is chiefly retained in the District as the food of the lower classes. It is usually grown on dry land, and never in the marshes. Convenience of irrigation is the circumstance that mainly governs the selection of land for its cultivation. Provided that water can be readily obtained, the dry or moist nature of the soil is of secondary importance. Fields which border on rivers or *kháls* are most frequently chosen. It is sown broadcast, and not transplanted. There is one variety of the *áus* crop the cultivation

85618

of which differs considerably from that which has been just described. It is distinguished from the common *bhadaí* by the name of *kartiki*, and is also known as *jhanti*. It is sown in July and reaped in October. It grows for the most part on moist lands, and is sometimes transplanted.

The *áman* or *haimantik* is the principal crop of the District, and constitutes the bulk of the rice that is consumed by the well-to-do classes, and exported to foreign markets. It is sown in July and August, occasionally as late as September, and reaped in December and January. It generally undergoes one transplantation, but sometimes it is allowed to grow up as it is sown broadcast. Well-watered or marshy lands are best suited to its cultivation, though it can be grown on high lands. The *áman* rice is subdivided into an immense number of subordinate varieties, which differ from each other in the fineness of the grain, flavour, fragrance, and other particulars. The following is a list of thirty-one of these varieties :—(1) *Ghi kalá*, (2) *gandheswarí*, (3) *chitrá sáli*, (4) *gandha maláti*, (5) *gangá-jál*, (6) *dudh rai*, (7) *laghu*, (8) *benáphuli*, (9) *balrámbhaj*, (10) *rádhání-pagal*,—this name means literally, 'that which maddens the cook,' and implies that cooks cannot restrain themselves from eating up so fragrant a dish,—(11), *sundar kalmá*, (12) *parbat jirá*, (13) *krishna kálmá*, (14) *ora*, (15) *kanakchur*, (16) *kusam sáli*, (17) *soná sáli*, (18) *parmánna sáli*, (19) *dahar nágrá*, (20) *jhingá sáli*, (21) *noná*, (22) *bánsphul*, (23) *meghi*, (24) *bangotá*, (25) *rángi*, (26) *kunchil*, (27) *rám sal*, (28) *jatá gotá*, (29) *ráimani*, (30) *dád kháni*,—this is one of the varieties which is ordinarily known as table rice,—(31) *necha kalma*.

The *boro* is a coarse kind of marsh rice, sown in January or February, and reaped in April, May, or June. It grows on swampy lands, the sides of tanks, or the beds of dried up water-courses. It is transplanted, sometimes more than once.

The *jáli* rice is not much cultivated. It is sown in spring and reaped during the rainy season. It grows on low river banks, which remain moist even during the hot months owing to subsoil percolation.

It is doubtful whether any general improvement is taking place in the quality of the rice grown in Murshidábád. It is, however, reported by the Deputy-Collector, that within the last ten or twelve years signs of progress have been shown in the Kándí Subdivision. Some of the finer varieties of the *áman* crop, such as *ghi kalá*, *gandheswarí*, *chitrá sáli*, etc., have been introduced for the first time

into this tract of country; but owing to the want of a convenient market they are not grown to any large extent. The extension of the rice-growing area has been very marked during the last twenty years. The Subdivisional Officer of Kándí states that 'within this period the increase of cultivation has been about one-fifth of the total area, and lands which were formerly jungle and fallow are now worked.' It is not known that superior cereals have in any instance supplanted the inferior sorts. But inferior cereals, such as *bájrá*, *chiná*, etc., are so little cultivated in the District, that if rice or wheat were to be substituted for them the change might easily pass unnoticed.

Rice, when in the seed, is called *bij* or *bichán*; when it germinates, *ankur*; the young plant is *jáwálí*; the full-grown plant, *gáchh-dhán*; just before it is in the ear, *thor*; when in ear, *phulá*. The grain until it is husked is known as simple *dhán*; after husking, it becomes *chául*; and when cooked, it is *bhát* or *anná*.

THE SOLID PREPARATIONS MADE FROM RICE are—(1) *Khái*, which is paddy or unhusked rice merely parched, the husks separating from the grain during the process of parching. (2) *Murkí*, which is *khái* dipped in boiled *gur* or molasses. (3) *Murí*, a peculiar kind of husked rice, fried. (4) *Chirá*, unhusked rice boiled, then husked and beaten flat. (5) *Chául bhájá*, or ordinary parched rice. (6) *Písták*, or home-made cakes of parched or husked rice ground into flour. *Písták*, or *pithá*, includes the following varieties:—(1) *Pulí*; (2) *saru ckákli*, which consists of ground rice made into thin *chapátis*; and (3) *malpuá*, which is composed of ground rice fried in oil or *ghí*, together with plantains and sweetmeats. The liquid preparations made from rice are *pachwai* or rice beer, and *rasi*, a kind of spirit.

In the Barhampur market the price of a *ser* of common *murkí* is about 3 *ánnás* and 3 *pies*, or nearly 2½d. per pound. *Murí* fetches 2 *ánnás* a *ser*, or 1½d. per pound; *chirá*, 1 *ánná* 4 *pies* a *ser*, or 1d. a pound; *khái*, 2 *ánnás* per *ser*, or 1½d. per pound. Barhampur is famous for the richer and more expensive sorts of *murkí* which are to be found in its market, and are said to be unrivalled in Bengal. Their price is as high as 10 *ánnás* 8 *pies* a *ser*, or 8d. a pound. *Chául bhájá* costs 10 *pies* a *ser*, or ⅝d. per pound. *Malpuá*, fried in oil, sells at from 1 *ánná* 6 *pies* to 2 *ánnás* a *ser*, or from 1d. to 1½d. per pound; when fried in *ghí*, it sells at 4 *ánnás* a *ser*, or 3d. per pound. *Murí*, *murkí*, *chirá*, and *khái* are sometimes made into buns and called *mowá*, of which the price

follows that of the component parts. *Safedá* is made by grinding husked rice. It is never eaten in this form, but is an important ingredient in the preparation of many kinds of confectionery; it sells at 12 *sers* for the rupee, or 1d. per pound. *Khud* is the name given to the parings from cleaned rice, which are sold at 25 *sers* for the rupee, or about ½d. per pound. *Tus* is the empty husk; and *kunrá* the pulverized rice and husk swept up after the process of husking and cleaning the rice is completed. Both are largely used as food for milch cows.

CEREALS other than rice comprise wheat (*gam*) and barley (*jab*), both of which are sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April; and the following coarser grains, (1) *bhurá*, (2) *chiná*, (3) *kodo*, (4) *mere*, *meruá*, or *miruá*, (5) *kowáin*, (6) *sial nejá*, (7) *syama*. These seven are all sown in April or May, and reaped in August or September. They are either eaten boiled entire like rice, or ground into flour. Oats (*jái*), *bajrá*, and *bhuttá* are also cultivated, but only to a small extent.

GREEN CROPS.—Peas (*matar*) are sown in October, and reaped in January and February. Gram (*chana*, *chholá*, or *but*) is sown in October and November, and reaped in February and March. The pulses cultivated are of various sorts, and include (1) common *kalái*, which is sown in October and reaped in January; (2) *más-kalái*, sown in September and reaped in January; (3) *mug*, sown and reaped at the same time as the preceding (of *mug* there are three varieties,—*soná mug*, *krishna mug*, and *gorá mug*, of which the first is the best, and the last the coarsest); (4) *arhar*, sown in April and reaped in March; (5) *musurí*, sown in October and reaped in February and March. *Khesárí* is also sown in October and reaped in February and March. *Barbátí* is sown in July and August and reaped in December. Beans (*sím*) are also sown in July and August and reaped in December. *Kurtí kalái* is sown in August and reaped in December and January.

OIL-SEEDS.—Mustard (*sarishá*) is sown in October, and reaped in December and January. *Rái sarishá* is sown in October, and reaped in March and April. Linseed (*tisí*) is sown in October, and reaped in February and March. Sesamum (*til*) is sown in July and August, and reaped in December and January. *Surjyágonjá* is sown and reaped with *til*.

FIBRES are jute (*koshtá*), flax (*son*), and hemp. These are all sown in May and June, and reaped in September and October. In

the case of hemp, it is to be remarked that, as a consequence of the climate, the narcotic element is developed at the expense of the fibres.

MISCELLANEOUS.—Indigo (*nil*) is sown in October, February, and April, and reaped in July and August. Mulberry (*tut*) is a perennial plant, as also is *pán* or betel-leaf. Sugar-cane (*ikshu*) is sown in March, and gathered in November and December.

VEGETABLES include amongst others—*pátál*, which is sown in December and January, and gathered from March to November; and *báigun*, of which there are two crops, the first and inferior one being sown in July and August, and gathered in September and October; the later and more valuable crop is sown in September, and gathered from October to March. Radishes (*mulá*), onions (*piyáj*), chillies (*lanká*), *jhingá*, etc. are sown and gathered at various seasons.

AREA, OUT-TURN OF CROPS.—The area of the District of Murshidábád, exclusive of the large rivers, was returned by the Boundary Commissioner in 1874 at 2462·44 square miles. The Census Report, for the purpose of calculating all averages, takes the area at 2578 square miles. The Revenue Surveyor (1852-55) ascertained the area at that date, exclusive of the Ganges and the Bhágirathí, to be 1,595,265·20 acres, or 2492·6 square miles. This last figure must be adopted as the basis for estimating the agricultural area of the District; because no other agricultural statistics are available beyond those supplied by the Revenue Surveyor. Out of the total area of 1,595,265·20 acres, he estimated that 213,739·11 acres, or 13·4 per cent., are waste, leaving 1,381,526·09, or 86·6 per cent., as cultivated and cultivable. The area actually under cultivation is not otherwise distinguished. According to another principle of classification, he estimated that 7464·20 acres, or ·46 per cent. of the total area, were occupied by roads; 24,692·06 acres, or 1·54 per cent., by *jhils* or marshes; 556·50 acres, or ·03 per cent., by hills; 58,364·74, or 3·65 per cent., by long grass jungle and sand; 71,980·95, or 4·51 per cent., by tanks and river-beds (excluding the area covered by the Ganges and the Bhágirathí); 10,396·10, or ·65 per cent., by mango topes; and 44,722·41 acres, or 2·80 per cent., by the sites of houses. All these estimates refer to the condition of the District twenty years ago. The total area was at that time very nearly the same as it is at present; but the margin of cultivation, as has been already mentioned, has advanced very much since that date. The Subdivisional Officer of Kándí states

that within the last twenty years the increase of cultivation has been about one-fifth of the total area. It is evident, therefore, that the proportion of the area now under cultivation must be very large. No figures whatever exist to show what portion of the total cultivated area is appropriated to the various crops. For the Headquarters Subdivision, the Collector hazards the following rough estimate:—Out of ten acres, 4 would be under rice, 3 under pulses, $2\frac{1}{2}$ under wheat and barley, and $\frac{1}{2}$ under miscellaneous crops. In the Subdivision of Kándí and Jangipur, the proportion under rice is very much greater.

It is quite impossible to present any estimate, even approximately accurate, of the total out-turn of the crops of the District. Indeed, it is most difficult to arrive at the fair yield per acre of any given crop, such as rice. The rent paid is no certain indication of the amount of the annual produce. Cultivators in different ranks of society will pay different rents for fields of the same quality and of similar position. The good *áman* rice fields in the Jangipur Subdivision are let at Rs. 2/8 per *bighá*, or 15s. an acre, to ordinary *rayats;* but 'gentlemen farmers' can obtain them for R. 1/8 to Rs. 2 per *bighá*, or 9s. to 12s. an acre. Again, even apart from this consideration, the risks caused by calamities of the season have much influence in determining the rate of rent, facility of irrigation ranking in the first place. Land which is highly productive, but liable either to drought or to inundation, pays a lower rent than land which is less productive but also less exposed to mischance. For example, in the Subdivision of Kándí there are fields paying Rs. 3 per *bighá*, or 18s. an acre, which yield a smaller out-turn than fields renting at half that rate. It would be useless, therefore, to do as has been done in other cases, and attempt to estimate the out-turn of paddy according to the rates of rent that may be paid. The only course open is merely to record the average produce in the various parts of the District, as returned by the Collector. In the Lálbágh Subdivision 8 *maunds* of paddy per *bighá*, or 17 hundredweights an acre, are considered to be a fair yield. In the Jangipur Subdivision, the *áus* crop yields about 6 *maunds* of paddy per *bighá*, or about 13 hundredweights an acre; the *áman* crop about 7 *maunds* per *bighá*, or 15 hundredweights an acre. In this part of the District, the rent of *áman* land varies from R. 1 to Rs. 4 per *bighá*, or from 6s. to 24s. an acre; and a good *áman* harvest will yield, in a favourable season, as much as 11 *maunds* per *bighá*, or

24 hundredweights an acre. In the Kándí Subdivision, the average out-turn of paddy per *bighá* is 10 *maunds*, or 22 hundredweights an acre. In the southern parts of the *Sadr* or Headquarters Subdivision, from 10 to 14 *maunds* of paddy would be the fair return for a *bighá*, or from 22 to 30 hundredweights an acre. In the north of this Subdivision this estimate has to be reduced to 7 or 8 *maunds* per *bighá*, or 15 or 17 hundredweights an acre. Bábu Pulin Bihárí Sen of Barhampur (whose report is printed in pp. 133-135 of *The Journal of the Agricultural Society*, Part I., new series, vol. ii. 1870) says that the average yield from a *bighá* of paddy land is from 6 to 7 *maunds*, or 13 to 15 hundredweights an acre; and that the maximum out-turn is 8, or in some places 12, *maunds* per *bighá*, *i.e.* 17 or 26 hundredweights for the acre.

For estimating the value of this out-turn, the value of common paddy may be taken at about 12 *ánnás* a *maund*, or 2s. o½d. per hundredweight. It must also be remembered that, in addition to the main rice crop, a second crop of gram, peas, oil-seeds, or vegetables is sometimes obtained from the same field. A crop of peas, raised on a field that has already borne a crop of paddy that year, would amount probably to 4 or 5 *maunds* per *bighá*, valued at Rs. 4 or Rs. 5; which would be about 9 or 11 hundredweights an acre, worth £1, 4s. od. or £1, 10s. od. A crop of linseed or gram would differ in quantity, but amount to about the same value. Hence it may be inferred that a *bighá* of paddy land will yield an out-turn varying from 6 *maunds* in the case of ordinary lands to 15 *maunds* in the case of superior lands. Represented in rupees, the value of this out-turn may be said to range from Rs. 4/8 in the one case to Rs. 12/8 in the other. Changing the terms, an acre of land produces from 13 to 33 hundredweights, worth from £1, 7s. od. to £3, 15s. od.

CONDITION OF THE PEASANTRY.—It is difficult to determine the precise limit which may be considered to distinguish a large from a small holding, as it appears to vary in different parts of the District. Roughly speaking, a holding above 60 *bighás*, or 20 acres in extent, would be thought large; and a holding below 10 *bighás*, or about 3 acres, very small. A holding of 32 *bighás*, or 11 acres, would be reckoned a fair-sized, comfortable farm for a husbandman. A pair of oxen may possibly be made to cultivate 20 *bighás*, or 7 acres; but more usually the use of a pair of oxen would be limited to 16 *bighás*, or 5 acres, just one-half of the holding which has been

described as a fair-sized one. A 'plough' of land, therefore, may be estimated at about 16 *bighás*, or 5 acres. Such a holding does not enable its cultivator to live as comfortably as a respectable retail shopkeeper, nor does it, in general, place him in a condition equal to that of a labourer on a money wage of Rs. 8 or 16s. per month. This statement, however, must be understood as applying only to ordinary land in the greater part of the District. If any portion of the 15 *bighás* is capable of producing mulberry, the position of the cultivator is altogether altered. In Kándí Subdivision, also, the state of things is different, and the holder of 16 *bighás* is there in better circumstances than the shopkeeper. Paddy land, again, which produces two crops, may, with good management, enable the cultivator to earn as much as Rs. 8 or 16s. per month from a *jót* of 16 *bighás;* and instances of this, according to the Collector, are not rare.

The cultivators of Murshidábád District are deeply in debt. It is possible that they are not so entirely dependent upon the *mahájans* as the cultivators of Nadiyá, but they are much more embarrassed than the same class in the 24 Parganás.

The vast majority of the cultivators are tenants-at-will, but it is impossible to state what proportion these bear to the entire body of the peasantry. So far as the Records of the Collectorate have been examined, it appears that, up to the close of 1870, 111 *rayats* had established themselves, or been acknowledged, as possessing occupancy rights; and 30 *rayats* as possessing rights to hold in perpetuity, without being subject to enhancement of rent.

There is to be found in the District a certain small number of persons who own, occupy, and cultivate their own hereditary lands, without any *zamíndár* above them. They are mostly holders of *lákhiráj* (rent-free) or *áimá* (quit-rent) lands, and almost always have under them either sub-holders or labourers of some sort.

The Domestic Animals of Murshidábád are cows and oxen, buffaloes, horses and ponies, asses, sheep, goats, and pigs. Of these, oxen, and occasionally buffaloes, are used in agriculture; and horses, sheep, goats, and pigs are reared for the market. Dogs and cats swarm in every village. Ducks and geese are reared in many villages; and fowls are plentiful, especially on the high lands in the north. Pigeons are rather scarce. Turkeys are seldom reared in the District, as the demand for them is small; they are generally supplied from the Districts north of the Ganges. The value of an

ordinary cow is Rs. 10, or £1; of a pair of oxen, Rs. 30, or £3; of a pair of buffaloes, Rs. 50, or £5; a score of sheep fetch from Rs. 20 to Rs. 25, or from £2 to £2, 10s., in the country, and from Rs. 50 to Rs. 60, or from £5 to £6, in the towns; a score of kids six months old fetch about Rs. 20, or £2, in the country, and about Rs. 35, or £3, 10s., in the towns; a score of full-grown pigs fetch from Rs. 75 to Rs. 150, or from £7, 10s. to £15.

THE AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS in use include the following:—(1) The plough (*hál* or *langál*), composed of the *joyál*, or yoke; the *is'*, or support; and the *phal*, or ploughshare. (2) The *bidá*, a large rake or harrow, formed out of a square or round block of wood, perforated by one row of iron teeth, and drawn by oxen. It is chiefly used in paddy fields to rake out the grass. (3) The *kodáli*, or common mattock, the blade of which is usually set on the handle at an acute angle, and not at a right angle, as with the English-made instrument. It is chiefly used in trenching, but also in digging up the soil in gardens and orchards, where the plough cannot turn. (4) The *mái*, a clod-crusher or harrow, generally made of two large bamboos, with smaller ones fixed across them like the rungs of a ladder. It is used for breaking the clods and levelling the field after ploughing. Oxen are yoked to it, and the driver stands on it to lend additional weight. (5) The *bánsái*, which is merely a single bamboo with ropes attached to the ends. It is used to level the ripe paddy before reaping. One man puts his weight on the bamboo, while others pull away at the ropes. (6) The *niráni* or hoe, of which the iron blade is fixed at right angles to the handle. It is used for weeding. (7) The *khontá*, a wooden dibble, sometimes pointed with iron, used in transplanting. (8) The *denruá*, an instrument similar to the English mattock, used for turning up the soil of fields by hand-labour. (9) The *kásti*, a sickle with small teeth, used for cutting grass and reaping paddy. (10) The *dáo* and *hensuá*, two kinds of bill-hook, used chiefly for cutting and tapping date-trees. (11) The *phor*, a sort of pick-axe or spud, being a small iron instrument used in weeding.

For the cultivation of a 'plough' of land, which amounts to about 16 *bighás* or 5 acres, a plough, a mattock, a harrow, a *niráni*, a sickle, and a pick-axe are indispensable. The price of these necessary implements, together with a pair of oxen, would represent a capital of about Rs. 40, or £4.

WAGES AND PRICES.—The rates of ordinary wages have risen of

late years. They are thus returned by the Collector, taking the rates in 1870 and in 1858:—In 1858, coolies received about Rs. 3 or 6s. per month; agricultural labourers, Rs. 4, or 8s., paid partly in food; smiths for agricultural implements, Rs. 6, or 12s.; smiths in towns, Rs. 6. 8, or 13s.; bricklayers, Rs. 6. 8, or 13s.; carpenters in the country, Rs. 6, or 12s.; carpenters in the towns, Rs. 6. 8, or 13s. In 1870, coolies received about Rs. 4 or 8s. per month; agricultural labourers, Rs. 5, or 10s., paid partly in food; smiths for agricultural implements, Rs. 8, or 16s.; smiths in towns, Rs. 10, or £1; bricklayers, Rs. 10, or £1; carpenters in the country, Rs. 8, or 16s.; carpenters in the towns, Rs. 10, or £1. The Collector, in his Annual Report for 1872-73, gives a table showing the average daily wages of the different classes of labourers. The rates do not materially vary from those already given for 1870, but the table is reproduced in this place as representing a different classification and mode of payment.

TABLE SHOWING AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF DIFFERENT CLASSES OF LABOURERS IN MURSHIDABAD DISTRICT FOR 1872–73.

	a. p. a. p.	*d. d.*
Labourers (including silk spinners), men, ...	2 0 to 2 6	3 to 3¾
Do. do. women,	1 6 ...	2¼ ...
Do. do. boys,	1 0 to 1 6	1½ to 2¼
Masons, ...	3 0 „ 4 0	4½ „ 6
Carpenters, ...	4 0 ...	6 ...
Smiths, ...	4 9 ...	7 ...

The prices of the common articles of food have also risen of late years, in a greater degree, apparently, than the rates of wages. Two tables are subjoined, the first of which shows the average price of common rice for the 34 years between 1836-37 and 1870-71; and the second shows the comparative prices of the various food stuffs in 1859-60, in the year of dearth 1866, and in 1870-71. The latter table corresponds with the one that has usually been given in the

Accounts of other Districts. The former table is especially valuable, as indicating how marked has been the increase in prices within the last few years. If a line be drawn at the year 1855-56, it will be observed that the average price of common rice, for the 20 years preceding that date, was 43 *sers* 1 *chhaták* for the rupee, or about 2s. 7d. per hundredweight; while in the 14 years since that date, the price has averaged 27 *sers* 5½ *chhatáks* for the rupee, or about 4s. 1d. per hundredweight. The contents of this first table have been supplied through the Collector by Bábu Gurucharan Das, Deputy Magistrate of Kándí. In turning the values into English denominations, the *ser* has been taken, for the sake of convenience, as exactly equivalent to 2 pounds avoirdupois :—

TABLE I. SHOWING THE PRICE OF COMMON RICE IN MURSHIDABAD DISTRICT FOR THE 34 YEARS FROM 1836–37 TO 1870–71.

Year.	Amount per rupee.	Price per cwt.	Year.	Amount per rupee.	Price per cwt.
	s. ch.	*s. d.*		*s. ch.*	*s. d.*
1836-37, . .	44 0	2 6	1853-54, . .	44 0	2 6
1837-38, . .	38 7	2 11	1854-55, . .	49 7	2 3
1838-39, . .	55 0	2 0	1855-56, . .	45 13	2 5
1839-40, . .	45 13	2 5	1856-57, . .	33 0	3 4
1840-41, . .	34 13	3 2	1857-58, . .	26 9	4 2
1841-42, . .	40 5	2 9	1858-59, . .	22 0	5 1
1842-43, . .	39 9	2 9	1859-60, . .	24 15	4 6
1843-44, . .	45 1	2 6	1860-61, . .	28 10	3 11
1844-45, . .	44 0	2 6	1861-62, . .	38 7	2 11
1845-46, . .	53 3	2 1	1862-63, . .	33 0	3 4
1846-47, . .	40 2	2 9	1863-64, . .	36 10	3 1
1847-48, . .	29 5	3 10	1864-65, . .	24 15	4 6
1848-49, . .	36 10	3 1	1865-66, . .	13 15	8 0
1849-50, . .	49 7	2 3	1866-67, . .	11 12	9 6
1850-51, . .	44 11	2 6	1867-68, . .	29 5	3 10
1851-52, . .	38 2	2 11	1868-69, . .	30 7	3 8
1852-53, . .	44 0	2 6	1869-70, . .	29 5	3 10

TABLE II. SHOWING THE PRICES OF FOOD STUFFS IN MURSHIDABAD DISTRICT FOR 1859–60 AND 1870–71, WITH THE MAXIMUM PRICE IN 1866.

	1859–60.		1870–71.		1866.	
					Maximum price.	
	Per maund.	Per cwt.	Per maund.	Per cwt.	Per maund.	Per cwt.
	r. a.	*s. d.*	*r. a.*	*s. d.*	*r. a.*	*s. d.*
Best cleaned rice or *bánsphul*,	4 0	10 11	5 0	13 8	8 0	21 10
Common rice,	1 12	4 9	1 10	4 5	6 0	16 4
Best unhusked rice or paddy,	1 6	3 9	1 2	3 1	3 4	8 10
Common unhusked rice or paddy,	1 4	3 5	1 0	2 8	3 0	8 2
Cleaned barley,	1 4	3 5	1 4	3 5	3 0	8 2
Unhusked barley,	1 4	3 5	1 4	3 5	1 4	3 5
Wheat,	2 0	5 5	2 4	6 2	5 0	13 8
Inferior wheat,	1 12	4 9	2 0	5 5	4 8	12 4

The Collector, in his Annual Report for 1872-73, gives the current prices for that year as follows:—Rice, first quality, ranged from 16 *sers* 3 *chhatáks* to 20 *sers* 5 *chhatáks* for the rupee, or from 6s. 11d. to 5s. 6d. per hundredweight; rice, second quality, from 19 *sers* 4 *chhatáks* to 25 *sers* 6 *chhatáks* for the rupee, or from 5s. 10d. to 4s. 5d. per hundredweight; wheat, from 12 *sers* 6 *chhatáks* to 24 *sers* 4 *chhatáks* for the rupee, or from 8s. 5d. to 4s. 7d. per hundredweight; barley, from 29 *sers* 5 *chhatáks* to 40 *sers* for the rupee, or from 3s. 10d. to 2s. 8d. per hundredweight; *bajrá*, from 24 *sers* 3 *chhatáks* to 32 *sers* for the rupee, or from 4s. 7d. to 3s. 6d. per hundredweight; gram, from 25 *sers* 2 *chhatáks* to 33 *sers* 5 *chhatáks*, or from 4s. 5d. to 3s. 4d. per hundredweight. The Collector adds that, 'As a general rule, prices are lowest in April, May, and June,—the months following the reaping of the cold-weather crops. The difference of price on the same date in the various markets is sometimes considerable, and it would appear

that grain merchants are somewhat remiss in taking advantage of the changes of the market and transferring their stocks.'

It may perhaps be mentioned in this place, that, according to the native chronicler, the price of rice (unhusked paddy) in the city of Murshidábád during the rule of Murshid Kulí Khán, in the early part of the eighteenth century, was 4 *maunds* for the rupee, or about 8d. per hundredweight.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—The European measure of time is in use in the large towns. The native measures of time are these: 7½ *dandas* = 1 *prahar;* 8 *prahars* = 1 *dibá-rát* (a day and night); 7 *dibá-rát* = 1 *saptáha* (a week); 2 *saptáhas* = 1 *paksha* (a fortnight). The *más*, or month, varies from 29 to 32 days. The *batsar*, or year, consists of twelve months or 365 days. When compared with English standards, the *danda* is made equal to 24 minutes, and the *prahar* to 3 hours.

Measures of quantity proper are not much in use, as commodities, almost without exception, are sold by weight and not by quantity. Country spirits are measured at the distilleries according to the English liquid measure. Paddy is also sold by quantity, in baskets, each of which contains a certain recognised volume or capacity. The denominations of the paddy baskets are as follow:—20 *hátuás* or *aris* = 1 *bis;* 16 *bis* = 1 *pauti* or *kahán.*

The standard of weight is universally the *ser*, of which the fractions and multiples are always constant. The *ser* itself, however, varies greatly in different parts of the District. These variations are commonly expressed in terms of the *tolá;* the *tolá* itself being the weight of a rupee, and thus ultimately the theoretical unit of weight. The standard *ser*, which is equivalent to 2·205 pounds avoirdupois, and the counterpart of the metrical kilogramme, contains 80 *tolás.* This *ser* is only in use in the larger towns. In the villages, the *ser* is usually estimated to contain 82½ *tolás;* but in some parts of the Kándí Subdivision the *ser* contains only 58½ *tolás*, and in other parts 60 *tolás.* Throughout this Account the *ser* has been roughly taken, for purposes of easy calculation, as exactly equal to 2 lbs. The denominations of the *ser* are as follow:—4 *kanchás* = 1 *chhaták;* 4 *chhatáks* = 1 *poá;* 4 *poás* = 1 *ser;* 5 *sers* = 1 *pasuri;* 8 *pasuris* = 1 *man* or *maund.*

The measure of distance is thus formed:—18 *buruls* (inches) = 1 *háth* (cubit); 2 *háths* = 1 *gaz* (yard); 2 *gaz* = 1 *nal* or *káthá;* 20 *káthás* or 80 *háths* = 1 *rasi* or *bighá;* 88 *rasis* = 1 *kos* (two miles);

4 *kos* = 1 *joyan.* The above terms are primarily applicable to linear measure; and the table of square measure is thus based upon them :—16 *chhatáks* = 1 *káthá;* 20 *káthás* = 1 *bighá.* The standard *bighá* is precisely equivalent to 14,400 square feet, or 1600 square yards, which is ·33 of the English acre. This *bighá* is reported to be the one most commonly adopted in all parts of the District. In *parganá* Plassey (Palási), however, a second *bíghá* is in use by the side of the standard *bighá;* and both of these have been recognised by judicial decision. This local *bighá* is composed of 55 yards, each of which are estimated to contain only 29 inches. According to this estimate, the local Plassey *bighá* would contain 17,666 square feet, or 1963 square yards, equivalent to ·405 of an acre. A second local *bighá* is said to be in force in certain villages of *parganá* Kumárpratáp, composed in the regular way of 80 *háths*, but each of these *háths* is 19½ instead of 18 inches. This *bighá* would therefore contain 16,888 square feet, or 1878 square yards, equivalent to ·388 of an acre. In all calculations throughout this Account, the *bighá* has been taken approximately at one-third of an acre.

Day-Labourers.—There is in Murshidábád District a considerable class of labourers who neither own nor rent land; but the Collector is of opinion that no marked tendency exists towards the further growth of this class. It is chiefly composed of Santáls and other aboriginal tribes from the north-western frontier of the District. Day-labourers are largely employed in cultivating the lands of others, especially in the case of mulberry land. They are paid money wages in the majority of cases, and always in the sowing season; but at harvest time they receive a certain share of the crop. When so remunerated, they are called *krisháns.* The *krisháns*, though receiving a portion of the produce, supply their manual labour only, and do not contribute in furnishing either the cattle or any portion of the seed, nor have they any interest whatever in the land. They are to be carefully distinguished from the *bárgáits* or *bháj*-holders, who abound in every part of the District. These *bárgáits* form a special class of the agricultural population, being not properly labourers, nor yet cultivators of their own fields. They possess rights, which amount almost to a metayer species of tenure, in the lands which they cultivate. The conditions of their holding are, that they retain a fixed share of the produce, which is usually one-half, and supply both seed and cattle. Such is the general outline of the *bháj* system, which admits of many variations

of detail. The owner of the land and the *bárgáit* may contribute in varying proportions to the entire expenses of cultivation, and the share of the out-turn awarded to each may vary in a corresponding proportion.

Children often work in the fields. The charge of cattle is their especial duty, and they are also largely employed in the cultivation and care of the mulberry. Women are hardly ever to be seen engaged in agricultural operations, except in mulberry fields.

SPARE LAND.—There is not a great quantity of spare land in Murshidábád District, according to the strict sense of the term. There is very little land that is waste, except in the case of the *jhils* and marshes. These are pretty numerous, but are not entirely uncultivated, for at certain seasons of the year they yield crops of some sort. Apart from the marshes, there is but a small amount of uncultivated land. The Revenue Surveyor (1852-55) estimated that out of a total area of 1,595,265 acres, about 213,739 acres were waste, being 13·4 per cent. of the whole. No figures of a later date exist, but there can be little doubt that the limits of cultivation have advanced rapidly within the last twenty years. The Collector states that the average rate of rent in Murshidábád is very low, as compared with other Districts. This circumstance would seem to indicate that the competition for land is not excessive. The land tenures do not as a rule present any features especially favourable either to the landlord or the tenant. In the south of the District, however, the *uthandí* tenure of Nadiyá is to be found, being not uncommonly known under the expressive name of *fasli jamá*. The peculiarity of this tenure consists in the circumstance that the cultivator only pays rent for the quantity of land that he may happen to have cultivated during the year, and that the amount of the rent is regulated by the nature of the crop. The Collector states that in Murshidábád the rent of such holdings is paid in kind, and is determined also by the actual amount of the produce. These tenures are usually created for short terms, and are then renewed. It has not been noticed that their number is tending either to increase or to diminish.

LAND TENURES.—The following account of the land tenures in Murshidábád is mainly derived from a report drawn up by Bábu Bankim Chandra Chatarji, Deputy-Collector, and dated October 18, 1873.

The tenures of the District may be divided into four classes:

(1) Those which pay revenue direct to Government; (2) those which are in the hands of middle-men; (3) cultivators' holdings and miscellaneous tenures; (4) rent-free estates, and estates paying a quit-rent.

(1) ESTATES PAYING REVENUE DIRECT TO GOVERNMENT include *zamíndárís* proper and independent *táluks*, together with such minor estates as have either been resumed or created by alluvion, etc., since the date of the Permanent Settlement. The total number of these estates in 1870-71 amounted to 2853, and the number of proprietors to 5040. The net amount of land revenue in the same year was £133,062, 10s. 0d. In 1873, the number of proprietors had increased to 2973, as recorded on the road-cess register. These numbers do not represent either the number of the *zamíndárs*, or even the number of estates, in the popular sense of these words. They include the *dimás*, or estates paying only a quit-rent, which will be described in detail on a subsequent page (p. 122).

(2) TENURES HELD BY MIDDLE-MEN include *patnís*, with their subordinate divisions, *mazkurí* and *shikmí táluks*, *istimrárís*, *ijárás*, *maurusís*, and *jots*. Of these, the *istimrárí* tenure alone dates in its integrity from before the Permanent Settlement. It is held at a fixed rate of rent, is both hereditary and transferable, and may be said to confer full rights of property. It is, however, of rare occurrence in this District. *Mazkurí táluks* are estates which were not created into independent *táluks* by the operation of section 5 of the Permanent Settlement Regulation. They continue to be dependent upon the larger *zamíndárís* of which they form a part, to the extent of paying their Government revenue through the superior *zamíndár*. In all other respects they confer full rights of proprietorship. They were especially numerous in the old *zamíndárí* of Rájsháhí, which included some portion of the present District of Murshidábád. The Deputy-Collector states that they are not now very common, and are chiefly to be found in the *parganá* of Mahálandí, which formerly belonged to the Rájá of Rájsháhí. In other *parganás* they are rarely to be met with. They are usually liable to very small sums as rent, and enjoy a large profit. *Shikmí* seems to be merely another name for the *mazkurí* or dependent *táluk*, being usually adopted in *parganás* Khargrám and Murárípur. The *patní* tenure is said to have been first created by the Mahárájá of Bardwán, in order to secure the regular receipt of his rents. It was legalized by Regulation viii. of 1819. It consists of a *táluk*

held in perpetuity at a fixed rent. It is liable to sale for arrears of rent; but its chief peculiarity is, that the tenure may be altogether extinguished by the sale of the parent *zamíndárí* for arrears of Government revenue. Beneath the *patní* comes a series of subordinate tenures created by successive sub-infeudations, each with rights similar to those of the original *patní*. These are known as *dar-patnís*, *se-patnís*, *daradar-patnís*, and so on. It would appear that this mode of sub-infeudation is especially common in Murshidábád District. The road cess returns, which are only partial in their extent, show that the *patnís* form 41 per cent. of the total number of intermediate tenures, and *dar-patnís* a further 12 per cent. 'Most large estates are let out to one or more *patnídárs;* under each *patnídár* flourish *dar-patnídárs;* under whom again are to be found *se-patnídárs*, and sometimes a fourth class of *daradar-patnídárs*. Nor is this the end of the chain. Under the *daradar-patnídár*, there often crops up the *ijárádár*, the *maurusídár*, the *ganthídár*, or other subordinate tenant. Indeed, it is not uncommon to find the mere *ganthídár* or *jótdár* subletting the land to a fresh tenant, whom he miscalls a *patnídár;* and thus the entire series may commence anew. One or two instances will serve to illustrate this rage for subletting. In a case where the names are ascertained, the *zamíndár*, has leased his estate in *patní* for Rs. 371, has taken it again into his own possession for Rs. 486, and forthwith relets it in *se-patní* for Rs. 518.' The Collector believes that such cases are by no means unusual. He found, in connection with a case which came before him, that a *zamíndár* was himself a *jótdár* in respect of a portion of his own estate, which he had leased out in *patní*. 'Again, Kumár Pratáp Páinam is the largest estate in the District, paying a Government revenue of Rs. 182,327. It contains no less than 132 *patní táluks*. Under these are the *dar-patnís*, of which 94 have been ascertained to exist. Of *se-patnís* only 29 are known; and of *patnís* in the fourth stage the number is, of course, still smaller. There are, besides, *ijárás* held directly under the estate, and also *ijárás* under the several *patnís*; the total number of *ijárás* being 18. The estate contains also a few *maurusís*, or large *jóts* which have risen to the rank of middle-men's tenures, and about 3000 rent-free tenures.' The Collector is of opinion that this process of sub-infeudation is due in great part to pressing requirements at certain times for ready money. It is, he believes, almost invariably the case that when a lease of the *patní* series is granted, there is a cash bonus given,

as well as an agreement to pay an annual fixed rent. The temptation to get rid of the trouble and uncertainty of collection, and to obtain a lump sum for the celebration of a *pujá*, or of a wedding ceremony, must still be very strong. *Jót* is the name usually applied in Murshidábád District to those tenures which are elsewhere called *maurusís*, *gánthís*, *hawálás*, etc. These tenures are hereditary and transferable, and are held at a fixed rate of rent. The origin of the tenure, as the name of *jót* implies, is to be found in cultivators' holdings at a definite rent; but the holders have ceased from various reasons to till the soil themselves, and have sublet to the actual husbandmen. 'The great mass of the Hindu cultivators holding permanent tenures have disappeared from the ranks of the cultivating classes. The prosperous Hindu always attempts to leave the ploughman's sphere of life, and to rise into the next higher rank. As soon as he finds he can afford it, he sublets his land, and the industrious worker sinks into the respectable drone. This observation is less applicable to Musalmáns.' The *maurusí* proper differs somewhat from the *jót*. It is a hereditary tenure, but the right to alienate depends upon local custom, which in Murshidábád District is favourable to alienation. Unless protected by express stipulations in the lease, the *maurusídár* remains liable to enhancement of rent. These tenures are sometimes granted for cultivation, but more often for the creation of dwelling-houses, gardens, plantations, and similar purposes. The *ijárá* is a lease of a temporary character, of which the conditions are almost always governed by a written contract. The term is usually short, and the *ijárádár* cannot create subordinate tenures to endure longer than his own lease, nor can he alienate in any way. The road cess returns, though they cannot be accepted as giving the total number of intermediate tenures in the District, are yet interesting as furnishing an approximate estimate of the proportion in which the several tenures prevail in the different *parganás*. 'The extensive *parganá* of Kumár-Pratáp heads the list both in *patnís* and *dar-patnís*. In Fathisinh, *ijárás* appear to be more in vogue, being 111 in number as opposed to 42 of the *patní* class. The *shikmís* are most numerous in the *parganás* which lie to the west of the Bhágirathí. Of *mazkurí táluks* no less than 72, or nearly seven-eighths of the total number, lie in the one *parganá* of Mahálandí. The *maurusí* tenures are most numerous in *parganá* Fathisinh, where the majority of the *áimá* or quit-rent estates are also to be found.'

(3) CULTIVATING AND MISCELLANEOUS TENURES.—Apart from *utbandí* or *faslí jamá* tenures, there are no peculiarities in the holdings actually held by cultivators in Murshidábád. The *utbandí* is pre-eminently a Nadiyá tenure, and is found for the most part in the southern part of this District, and especially in *parganá* Palásí (Plassey), which till lately was entirely included within the District of Nadiyá. This tenure has already been mentioned in connection with the subject of spare lands (p. 115). Its essential feature is, that the husbandman only pays rent for the actual quantity of land which he has cultivated during the year, and that the amount of his rent is determined by the nature of the crop he has grown. The old classification of cultivators' holdings was into those of the *khud-khást* or resident *rayats*, and those of the *pái-khást* or non-resident *rayats*. In the early history of British land legislation in India, this distinction was of primary importance. After the desolation of Bengal by the great famine of 1770, there was in every village more land than the survivors could properly cultivate, and migratory bands of peasants had to be invited to settle on the deserted tracts. From the necessities, probably, of this situation, there resulted the superior privileges granted to the resident cultivators. But a century of peace and plenty has obliterated the real meaning of this classification, which now survives only as a legal tradition. Another classification of cultivators' holdings might be made, according to the form in which the rent is paid. The great majority of the peasants pay in hard cash, and their tenure is then called *hari;* but payment in kind is not uncommon, in which case the tenure is known as *khámár* or *bháj*. The word *khámár* expresses strictly that the rent is paid in kind, but it is also extended to lands that form the home-farm of the *zamíndár* or other superior landlord. In this latter case the term used is often *khás khámár*. The *bháj* or *bárgá* tenure is of a metayer character, the produce being shared in a fixed proportion (frequently in equal moieties) between the cultivator and the landlord. This tenure has already been alluded to on a previous page under the heading Agricultural Labourers (p. 114). Lastly, the holdings of the cultivators may be arranged in the three great divisions which are recognised by the present law, and which alone are of much practical importance:—(1) Tenures held at a fixed rate of rent; (2) tenures held with a right of occupancy, but liable to enhancement of rent; (3) tenures held at the will of the landlord. In the first case the

tenant is substantially the full proprietor of the soil, subject merely to the payment of a determinate rent-charge to the landlord. The tenure is hereditary, and may also be transferred by sale or devise. As has already been mentioned, many of these permanent *jóts* have been raised into the class of intermediate tenures, owing to their holders choosing the position of middle-men, and subletting their little plots to a lower class of cultivators. There can be no doubt, also, that a great many of these tenants, with a legal right to hold without enhancement of rent, have been depressed by their landlords into the lower rank of mere occupancy *rayats*. The Deputy-Collector states that 'increased rents have been obtained from them by unscrupulous *zamíndárs*, who can unfortunately effect this object by fraud or force. The mere demand is often sufficient, for the cultivator thinks it useless to insist on his rights and contest the will of the *zamíndár*. Even when the rights are in theory respected, the permanent holder is in practice reduced to the level of the rest, by means of illegal, and unrecognised, but irresistible exactions. The operation of these causes is rapidly diminishing the total number of permanent holdings.' The Collector states that the vast majority of the cultivators are mere tenants-at-will, and furnishes no approximate estimate of the numbers of the other two classes. As has already been stated (see page 108), up to 1870 111 cultivators had established rights of occupancy, and only 30 had been recognised by the Courts as entitled to hold without enhancement of rent.

The Deputy-Collector enumerates the following miscellaneous tenures :—(1) *Bástu*, or homestead land, which generally pays the highest rent. This land is often let on a peculiar tenure, which is both hereditary and transferable according to the custom of the locality, which varies throughout the District. (2) *Bágát*, or land granted for gardens or plantations, which commands the highest rent next after *bástu*. The tenure of this land is also hereditary and transferable by custom. (3) *Jalkar*, or the lease of a fishery, which gives no rights to the soil covered by the water, but merely to the taking of the fish. (4) *Talkar*, or the right to the dried-up bed of a fishery. (5) *Bankar*, or the right to collect forest produce. (6) *Ghaskar*, or the right to cut grass. (7) *Phalkar*, or the right to gather fruit from growing trees. As an instance of the assignment of a similar right, supposed to attach to the possession of land, the Deputy-Collector gives the case of an *ijárá* or lease of

levying tolls on boats mooring by the river side. Such a lease was granted for the bank of the Ganges at Bhagwángolá, but the practice has now been put down.

SERVICE TENURES or *chákrán* lands are still very common in Murshidábád District. They are rent-free, inasmuch as they do not pay any rent to the *zamíndárs;* but they must be carefully distinguished from revenue-free tenures (Class IV.), which are exempt from the Government revenue. 'The most numerous of the *chákrán* lands are those known as *páikán*, which are assigned for the support of the village police. The old village community has so entirely decayed, that it is now difficult to find any other class of public servants holding rent-free lands, except the *kotwáls* and, very rarely, the *mandals* or head-men also. It is by no means uncommon, however, to find private servants, *i.e.* the servants of particular families of landowners, holding service grants of rent-free land. In this case, as in others, the *zamíndár* has come forward to assume the collective body of rights which the village has lost. Not long ago it must have been the general custom for landholding families to pay for almost all kinds of service by grants of land in perpetuity. The services have now in many cases ceased to be performed, or even demanded, but the lands remain rent-free. The family priest was often thus paid; so was the family barber, the potter who furnished crockery, and the drummer who beat the tom-tom at the *Durgá pujá*, the *naubat*-players who supplied music on festal occasions, the sellers of vegetables and plantain-leaves, the flower sellers, the modeller in clay, and the painter by whose aid Durga is annually enshrined in the halls of her votaries; all these, together with palanquin-bearers, fishermen, sweepers in ordinary and sweepers extraordinary, used to be, and often still are, paid in land for their services or their goods. The *chákrán* lands are most numerous in the western half of the District, in tracts which once formed parts of the ancient *zamíndáris* of Bírbhúm, Rájsháhí, and Fathisinh.'

(4) REVENUE-FREE ESTATES.—This class of tenures is largely represented in Murshidábád District, but it possesses few features which are not common to the rest of Bengal. The total number of *lákhiráj* or revenue-free estates on the District Register is 482; but of these, many, of course, are extremely small. Both the large and the small ones are to be found most abundantly in *parganá* Asadnagar, the Fiscal Division which contains the greater part of the city of Murshidábád. The Nawáb is himself the largest *lákhiráj*

holder in the District. His *ramnahs* or deer parks, which come under this category, are very extensive; and he owns, besides, several large revenue-free *mahals*. Of these, one is valued at £400 per annum, another at £218, and a third contains 1000 acres. The Deputy-Collector states that 'there are but few rent-free holdings of which the traditional origin, dating within the past one hundred years or so, does not survive in the holder's family.'

Somewhat apart from the revenue-free estates proper, come the *áimás* or quit-rent tenures. These are charitable grants for Muhammadan uses; and though they do pay revenue, its amount is always small and often only nominal. *Aimás* are very capricious in their distribution, and in Murshidábád abound in *parganá* Fathisinh, which lies to the south-west of the District. Their precise number has not been ascertained, but the Deputy-Collector believes that the total for the District may be put at about 700. Of these, by far the majority are to be found in the *parganá* already mentioned, as may be inferred from the following calculations that have been made by the Deputy-Collector. It must be premised that *áimás* are always of extremely small area, and that they appear for the most part among the revenue-paying estates on the roll of the District. 'That roll contains 2973 estates, including sharers with separate accounts, of which total 947, or one-third, lie in *parganá* Fathisinh. Again, of these 947, only 56 pay more than £10 per annum as Government revenue. It may fairly be assumed that the greater number of the remaining 891 are *áimás* paying less than £1 a year. According to a second principle of calculation, the same result may be thus reached. The total area of the District is 2578 square miles, and the average area of a (road cess) estate is ·86 of a square mile. The area of *parganá* Fathisinh is 216·86 square miles, so that the average area of an estate in that *parganá* is only ·23 of a square mile. A single estate, or rather two halves of a single estate, paying about £9000 of revenue, occupies a very considerable portion of Fathisinh. The precise area of this estate is not known, but it is clear that the average size of an *áimá* must be below one-fourth, and possibly below one-eighth of the average size of all estates in the District.'—'Why the *áimás* should be so plentiful in this part of the District does not appear. The grantees are usually resident Musalmáns; but there is no reason to suppose that the grants were made directly by the Muhammadan Governor of Murshidábád. The estate of Fathisinh is one of the oldest in the

District, and so far back as its history can be traced, it has almost always been in the possession of a Hindu family. It is known also, as a matter of fact, that the *áimás* have been created by the Hindu *zamíndárs*. It can only be inferred that they owe their origin to fear rather than to favour.'

The Collector reported in 1870 that 'there was no ground for supposing that most of the land of the District had passed out of the hands of the *sadr zamíndár* into those of intermediate holders.' It would appear, however, from the later and more definite information that has been embodied in the foregoing description of land tenures, that good grounds do exist for assuming that the *zamíndárs* of Murshidábád have to a great extent lost the direct hold over their own estates.

THE RATES OF RENT paid in Murshidábád District may be said to depend for the most part upon certain local classifications. These distinctions are based, partly upon the productive qualities of the soil, and partly upon the agricultural uses to which the lands are devoted. With reference to their degrees of fertility, lands are arranged in three classes:—(1) *Awál*, or first class; (2) *doem*, or second class; and (3) *siyem*, or third class. The average rent paid for these several classes of land varies in different parts of the District. The first class pays from Rs. 2 to Rs. 4 per *bighá*, or from 12s. to 24s. an acre; the second class from Rs. 1. 4 to Rs. 1. 12 per *bighá*, or from 7s. 6d. to 10s. 6d. an acre; and the third class from R. 0. 5 to R. 1. 0 per *bighá*, or from 1s. 10½d. to 6s. an acre. There is also a species of land, known as *káin chál*, which is generally considered to be even superior to the *áwál*, or first class. It borders on water, whence it can be easily irrigated, and rents at above Rs. 3 per *bighá*, or 18s. an acre. According to the uses to which lands are put, they are divided into at least twenty classes:—(1) *Bástu*, or homestead land; (2) *udbástu*, or land adjoining the homestead; (3) *dhakal bástu*, or that which is one degree further removed from the homestead; (4) *choan-bástu*, or abandoned homestead land; (5) *bágát*, or orchards and gardens; (6) *báns*, or bamboo land; (7) *sáli*, or rice land; (8) *soná*, or land for cold-weather crops; (9) *áwál ikuri*, a hollow between two eminences, which sometimes contains water; (10) *saribati* or *khámár*, the ground where grain is threshed and stored; (11) *doem-dáli*, eminences bordering on *ekurismatiál*, which are liable to be flooded; (12) *kuchi*, or another kind of lands which bear cold-weather crops; (13) *táti*, or land which is

dried up and waste, but capable of being again cultivated; (14) *jol*, or hollows; (15) *jaláhári*, or smaller hollows; (16) *báli*, or sand; (17) *ghás-dángá*, or pasture land; (18) *náik-patit*, or waste lands which are cultivable; (19) *shárigári*, or spots where manure and filth are deposited; (20) *pukhur*, the site of tanks. Finally, crop-bearing lands are again classified according to the crops they bear. Concerning these it is only necessary to state, that fields which have once borne an exhausting crop, such as *áman* rice or wheat, can bear no second crop that year. Fields which produce *áus* rice generally yield a second crop of pulses, gram, etc., which are known as *cháitáli* or spring crops. Lands which produce perennial crops, such as mulberry and *pán* leaves, are of course incapable of bearing any other.

The following rates of rent prevailing in different *parganás* are extracted from lists furnished by the Collector in 1870. They show the rates prevailing before the year 1859, taken from the *kánungo* settlements, as compared with those that have been fixed by the Revenue Courts since Act x. of 1859 came into force.

Parganá Náwánagar, before 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 2. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 15s. an acre; *udbástu*, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per *bighá*, or 7s. 6d. an acre; high land, second class, Rs. 0. 14. 0 per *bighá*, or 5s. 3d. an acre; high land, third class, Rs. 0. 12. 0 per *bighá*, or 4s. 6d. an acre. Since Act x. of 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 8 per *bighá*, or 48s. an acre; *udbástu*, Rs. 4 per *bighá*, or 24s. an acre; high land, second class, Rs. 1. 6. 9 per *bighá*, or 8s. 6d. an acre; high land, third class, Rs. 1. 2. 0 per *bighá*, or 6s. 9d. an acre. *Parganá* Dháwá, before 1859:—Middling land, from Rs. 2. 2. 0 to Rs. 2. 10. 0 per *bighá*, or from 12s. 9d. to 15s. 9d. an acre; high land, second class, Rs. 1. 5. 0 per *bighá*, or 7s. 10d. an acre. Since Act x. of 1859:—Middling land, Rs. 3. 13. 0 per *bighá*, or 22s. 10d. an acre; high land, second class, Rs. 1. 14. 0 per *bighá*, or 11s. 3d. an acre. *Parganá* Murárípur, before 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 7. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 45s. an acre; *udbástu*, Rs. 3. 12. 0 per *bighá*, or 22s. 6d. an acre; rice land, Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or 6s. an acre. Since Act x. of 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or 30s. an acre; *udbástu*, Rs. 2. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 15s. an acre; rice land, from Rs. 0. 6. 6 to Rs. 0. 11. 0 per *bighá*, or from 2s. 5d. to 4s. 1d. an acre. *Parganá* Patkábárí, before 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 7. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 45s. an acre; *udbástu*, Rs. 3. 12 per *bighá*, or 22s. 6d. an acre; garden, from Rs. 2. 8. 0 to Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or from 15s. to 30s. an acre; mulberry, Rs. 1 per

bighá, or 6s. an acre; pulses, Rs. 0. 12. 0 per *bighá*, or 4s. 6d. an acre. Since Act x. of 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 6. 4. 0 per *bighá*, or 37s. 6d. an acre; *udbástu*, Rs. 3. 4. 3 per *bighá*, or 19s. 7d. an acre; garden, from Rs. 2. 8. 0 to Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or from 15s. to 30s. an acre; mulberry, Rs. 0. 12. 0 per *bighá*, or 4s. 6d. an acre; pulses, Rs. 0. 12. 0 per *bighá*, or 4s. 6d. an acre. *Parganá* Ahmadnagar, before 1859:—*Bástu*, from Rs. 7. 7. 0 to Rs. 10. 10. 0 per *bighá*, or from 44s. 8d. to 63s. 9d. an acre; *udbástu*, Rs. 3. 3. 0 per *bighá*, or 19s. 2d. an acre; mulberry, Rs. 3. 3. 0 per *bighá*, or 19s. 2d. an acre; garden, Rs. 2. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 15s. an acre. Since Act x. of 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 5. 2. 0 per *bighá*, or 30s. 9d. an acre; *udbástu*, Rs. 2. 9. 0 per *bighá*, or 15s. 4d. an acre; mulberry in homestead land, Rs. 3 per *bighá*, or 18s. an acre; mulberry in village land, Rs. 2. 2 per *bighá*, or 12s. 9d. an acre; mulberry in the field, Rs. 1. 4 per *bighá*, or 7s. 6d. an acre; garden, Rs. 6 per *bighá*, or 36s. an acre. *Parganá* Rájsháhí, before 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or 30s. an acre; *udbástu*, Rs. 2. 8 per *bighá*, or 15s. an acre; garden, Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or 6s. an acre; high land, Rs. 1. 4 per *bighá*, or 7s. 6d. an acre. Since Act x. of 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or 30s. an acre; *udbástu*, Rs. 2. 8 per *bighá*, or 15s. an acre; garden, from Rs. 5 to Rs. 7. 8 per *bighá*, or from 30s. to 45s. an acre; high land, Rs. 2 per *bighá*, or 12s. an acre. *Parganá* Kumar Pratáp, before 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or 30s. an acre; *udbástu*, Rs. 2. 8 per *bighá*, or 15s. an acre; bamboo, Rs. 1. 9 per *bighá*, or 9s. 4d. an acre; pulse, oil-seeds, etc., first class, Rs. 0. 10. 6 per *bighá*, or 4s. an acre; pulse, oil-seeds, etc., second class, Rs. 0. 8. 6 per *bighá*, or 3s. 3d. an acre; pulse, oil-seeds, etc., third class, Rs. 0. 5. 10 per *bighá*, or 2s. 2d. an acre; sandy land, Rs. 0. 3. 0 per *bighá*, or 1s. 2d. an acre. Since Act x. of 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 16. 4 per *bighá*, or 97s. 6d. an acre; *udbástu*, Rs. 8. 10 per *bighá*, or 51s. 9d. an acre; grass land, Rs. 0. 6. 6 per *bighá*, or 2s. 5d. an acre; high land, second class, Rs. 3. 4 per *bighá*, or 19s. 6d. an acre; high land, third class, Rs. 1. 10 per *bighá*, or 9s. 9d. an acre; first-rate middling land, Rs. 4. 1 per *bighá*, or 24s. 4d. an acre. *Parganá* Kásipur, before 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 5. 4 per *bighá*, or 31s. 6d. an acre; *udbástu*, Rs. 2. 10 per *bighá*, or 15s. 9d. an acre; garden, from Rs. 2. 8 to Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or from 15s. to 30s. an acre; high land, Rs. 0. 6. 0 per *bighá*, or 2s. 3d. an acre. Since Act x. of 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or 30s. an acre; *udbástu*, Rs. 2. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 15s. an acre; garden, from Rs. 1. 4. 0 to Rs. 5 per

bighá, or from 7s. 6d. to 30s. an acre; pulses, Rs. 0. 11. 0 per *bighá*, or 4s. 1d. an acre. *Parganá* Rokanpur, before 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 10 per *bighá*, or 60s. an acre; *udbástu*, Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or 30s. an acre; garden, jack-fruit, mango, and bamboo, Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or 30s. an acre; mulberry, Rs. 2. 8 0 per *bighá*, or 15s. an acre; rice, second class, Rs. 1. 2. 0 per *bighá*, or 6s. 9d. an acre; rice, third class, Rs. 0. 10. 0 per *bighá*, or 3s. 9d. an acre; rice, fourth class, Rs. 0. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 3s. an acre; rice for transplanting, Rs. 0. 5. 0 per *bighá*, or 1s. 11d. an acre; rice liable to be submerged, Rs. 0. 4. 0 per *bighá*, or 1s. 6d. an acre; grass, Rs. 0. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 3s. an acre. Since Act x. of 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 12. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 75s. an acre; *udbástu*, Rs. 6. 4. 0 per *bighá*, or 37s. 6d. an acre; mulberry, from Rs. 2. 4. 0 to Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or from 13s. 6d. to 30s. an acre; garden, Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or 30s. an acre; thatching grass, Rs. 0. 10. 0 per *bighá*, or 3s. 9d. an acre; rice, low, second class, Rs. 0. 12. 0 per *bighá*, or 4s. 6d. an acre; rice, low, third class, Rs. 0. 10. 0 per *bighá*, or 3s. 9d. an acre; high land, second class, Rs. 0. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 3s. an acre; high land, third class, Rs. 0. 6. 0 per *bighá*, or 2s. 3d. an acre. *Parganá* Palási, before 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 2 per *bighá*, or 12s. an acre; garden, Rs. 5. 5. 0 per *bighá*, or 31s. 10d. an acre; mulberry, Rs. 2. 2. 0 per *bighá*, or 12s. 9d. an acre. Since Act x. of 1859:—*Bástu*, Rs. 10 per *bighá*, or 60s. an acre; garden, Rs. 8. 2. 0 per *bighá*, or 48s. 9d. an acre; mulberry, from Rs. 2. 6. 0 to Rs. 3. 2. 0 per *bighá*, or from 14s. 3d. to 18s. 9d. an acre.

The Collector has also been able to furnish the following list of rates of rent which prevailed in *parganá* Rájpur in the year 1821:—*Bástu*, from Rs. 3 to Rs. 15 per *bighá*, or from 18s. to 90s. an acre; *udbástu*, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 7. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or from 9s. to 45s. an acre; bamboo and garden, from Rs. 1. 4. 0 to Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or from 7s. 6d. to 30s. an acre; early rice, from Rs. 0. 7. 0 to Rs. 1. 14. 0 per *bighá*, or from 2s. 7d. to 11s. 3d. an acre; *sesamum*, from Rs. 0. 8. 0 to Rs. 2. 12. 0 per *bighá*, or from 3s. to 16s. 6d. an acre; barley, wheat, and gram, from Rs. 0. 10. 0 to Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or from 3s. 9d. to 6s. an acre; *arhar*, from Rs. 0. 10. 0 to Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or from 3s. 9d. to 6s. an acre; mulberry in the field, from Rs. 0. 8. 0 to Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or from 3s. to 6s. an acre; mulberry in village land, from Rs. 2. 8. 0 to Rs. 3. 2. 0 per *bighá*, or from 15s. to 18s. 9d. an acre; inferior cereals, oil-seeds, and pulses, Rs. 0. 8. 0 to Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or from 3s. to 6s. an acre;

thatching grass, from Rs. 0. 8. 0 to Rs. 0. 12. 0 per *bighá*, or from 3s. to 4s. 6d. an acre; *sáli* or low land, from Rs. 1. 4. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per *bighá*, or from 7s. 6d. to 10s. 6d. an acre; *soná* or high land, Rs. 0. 12. 0 per *bighá*, or 4s. 6d. an acre; cotton, Rs. 2. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 15s. an acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 2. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 15s. an acre; *khesárí*, from Rs. 0. 2. 0 to Rs. 0. 4. 0, or from 9d. to 1s. 6d.

In a report to Government, dated August 15, 1872, the Collector has given a statement showing the crops usually grown in the District, and the rents commonly paid for them. To his list he has prefixed the following remarks:—'Inquiries on this subject have been made by me, and reports have been received from the subdivisional officers, from the manager of the Násipur and Neháliá estates, and from some of the European landholders and managers resident in the District; and I trust that the information obtained is approximately correct. The covenanted Deputy-Collector of Lálbágh, who made local inquiries in *tháná* Rámpur Hát, states that in many villages in that *tháná* there is an *asl* or original rent, which at the present time is not paid by any one. Bráhmans and others, who, on account of caste prejudices or other reasons, are above tilling their land themselves, pay at a rate double this original rate; while *mandals* or heads of villages pay at a rate 2½ times as high, and the general body of cultivators at a rate which is 3 or 3½ times the original rent. The original rate is probably a relic of a time long past, the general rise of prices during the present century having caused a corresponding enhancement of the rates for the various kinds of land, which are, however, still based upon the standard formerly prevalent.'

The following is the Collector's list of rents, arranged according to Subdivisions and *thánás* or police circles:—

Sadr Subdivision.—*Tháná* Sujáganj: high rice lands for earlier rice, Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or 6s. od. per acre; food grains, viz. wheat, *matár*, *musurí*, etc., from 12 *ánnás* to Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or from 4s. 6d. to 6s. per acre; garden, Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or £1, 10s. od. per acre; mulberry, Rs. 2 per *bighá*, or 12s. per acre. In this *tháná* very little late rice is grown. *Tháná* Gorá-bázár: high rice lands for earlier rice, from 8 *ánnás* 6 *pies* to Rs. 1. 1. 1 per *bighá*, or from 3s. 2d. to 6s. 5d. per acre; food grains, wheat, *matár*, *musurí*, etc., from 8 *ánnás* 6 *pies* to Rs. 1. 1. 1 per *bighá*, or from 3s. 2d. to 6s. 5d. per acre; garden, from Rs. 4. 4. 3 to Rs. 5. 5. 4 per *bighá*,

or from £1, 5s. 7d. to £1, 12s. 0d. per acre; mulberry, Rs. 2 per *bighá*, or 12s. per acre. The rates in this *thánd* are based on the *sikká* rupee. *Thánd* Barwá: high rice lands for earlier rice, 6 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or 2s. 3d. per acre; low rice lands for late rice, Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or 6s. per acre; food grains, viz. wheat, *matár*, *musurí*, etc., Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or 6s. per acre; garden, Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or 6s. per acre; mulberry, Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or 6s. per acre. *Thánd* Hariharpárá: high rice lands for earlier rice, 12 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or 4s. 6d. per acre; low rice lands for late rice, 12 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or 4s. 6d. per acre; food grains, viz. wheat, *matar*, *musurí*, etc., 12 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or 4s. 6d. per acre; garden, Rs. 2. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 15s. per acre; betel or *pán*, Rs. 7. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or £2, 5s. 0d. per acre; mulberry, Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or 6s. per acre. *Thánd* Jalangí: high rice lands for early rice, 4 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or 1s. 6d. per acre; low rice lands for late rice, 6 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or 2s. 3d. per acre; food grains, viz. wheat, *matar*, *musurí*, etc., Rs. 1. 1. 0 per *bighá*, or 6s. 5d. per acre; garden, Rs. 2. 5. 0 per *bighá*, or 13s. 11d. per acre; betel or *pán*, Rs. 8. 4. 0 per *bighá*, or £2, 9s. 6d. per acre; mulberry, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 9s. per acre. *Thánás* Gowás and Bhagwángolá: high rice lands for early rice, 8 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or 3s. per acre; low rice lands for late rice, 8 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or 3s. per acre; indigo, 3 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or 1s. 2d. per acre; garden, Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or £1, 10s. 0d. per acre; betel or *pán*, Rs. 2. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 15s. per acre; mulberry, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 9s. per acre; vegetables, Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or 6s. per acre. *Thánd* Nawádá: high rice lands for early rice, from Rs. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per *bighá*, or from 6s. to 7s. 6d. per acre; low rice lands for late rice, from Rs. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per *bighá*, or from 6s. to 7s. 6d. per acre; food grains, viz. wheat, *matar*, *musurí*, etc., from Rs. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per *bighá*, or from 6s. to 7s. 6d. per acre; indigo, from Rs. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per *bighá*, or from 6s. to 7s. 6d. per acre. *Thánd* Daulatbázár: high rice lands for early rice, 12 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or 4s. 6d. per acre; low rice lands for late rice, 12 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or 4s. 6d. per acre; food grains, viz. wheat, *matar*, *musurí*, etc., 12 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or 4s. 6d. per acre; garden, Rs. 2 per *bighá*, or 12s. per acre; mulberry, Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or 6s. per acre. *Thánd* Díwánsarái: high rice lands for early rice, 6 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or 2s. 3d. per acre; low rice lands for late rice, 6 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or 2s. 3d. per acre; sugar-cane, from Rs. 2.

3. 0 to Rs. 3. 12. 0 per *bighá*, or from 13s. 2d. to £1, 2s. 6d. per acre; garden, from Rs. 2. 3. 0 to Rs. 3. 12. 0 per *bighá*, or from 13s. 2d. to £1, 2s. 6d. per acre; mulberry, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 9s. per acre. *Thánd* Badrihát: high rice lands for early rice, 12 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or 4s. 6d. per acre; low rice lands for late rice, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or 9s. per acre; food grains, 8 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or 3s. per acre; garden, Rs. 3. 12. 0 per *bighá*, or £1, 2s. 6d. per acre; mulberry, Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or 3s. per acre; vegetables, Rs. 1. 2. 0 per *bighá*, or 6s. 9d. per acre. *Thánd* Kaliánganj: low rice lands for late rice, Rs. 2 per *bighá*, or 12s. per acre; garden, Rs. 2. 8 per *bighá*, or 15s. per acre.

Jangipur Subdivision.—*Thánd* Jangipur: high rice lands for early rice, from Rs. 1 to Rs. 3 per *bighá*, or from 6s. to 18s. per acre; low rice lands for late rice, from 8 *ánnás* to Rs 1. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or from 3s. to 7s. 6d. per acre; food grains, etc., from Rs. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per *bighá*, or from 6s. to 7s. 6d. per acre; jute, from 8 *ánnás* to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per *bighá*, or from 3s. to 7s. 6d. per acre; garden, from Rs. 1. 8 to Rs. 8. 8 per *bighá*, or from 9s. to £2, 11s. 0d. per acre; mulberry, Rs. 1. 2. 0 per *bighá*, or 6s. 9d. per acre.

Lálbágh and city of Murshidábád Subdivision.—*Thánd* Sháhnagar: high rice lands for early rice, from 5 *ánnás* to Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or from 1s. 11d. to 6s. per acre; garden, Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or 6s. per acre. Whatever be the crop sown on these lands, the same rent is paid. *Thánd* Mánullá-bázár: high rice lands for early rice, from 5 *ánnás* to 8 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or from 1s. 11d. to 3s. per acre; garden, from Rs. 1 to Rs. 2. 15. 0 per *bighá*, or from 6s. to 17s. 8d. per acre. Whatever be the crop sown on these lands, the same rent is paid. *Thánd* Asánpur: high rice lands for early rice, from 8 *ánnás* to 12 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or from 3s. to 4s. 6d. per acre; garden, from Rs. 2 to Rs. 2. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or from 12s. to 15s. per acre; mulberry, from Rs. 2 to Rs. 4 per *bighá*, or from 12s. to £1, 4s. 0d. per acre; vegetables, from 6 *ánnás* to Rs. 1 per *bighá*, or from 2s. 3d. to 6s. per acre. Whatever be the crop sown on these lands, the same rent is paid. *Thánd* Nalhátí: low rice lands for late rice, from 9 to 12 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or from 3s. 5d. to 4s. 6d. per acre; betel or *pán*, from Rs. 30 to Rs. 40 per *bighá*, or from £18 to £24 per acre. In the villages situated in this *thánd* there is no mulberry cultivation. The only village in which there are *pán* plantations is Paikpárá, for which a rent is paid varying from Rs. 30 to Rs. 40 per *bighá*, or from £18 to £24 per acre. Almost the only crop

cultivated in the villages of this *thánd* is rice. The same rent is paid if sugar-cane is cultivated. *Thánd* Rámpur Hát: low rice lands for late rice, from 12 *ánnás* to Rs. 1. 6. 0 per *bighá*, or from 4s. 6d. to 8s. 3d. per acre. There is no mulberry land in this *thánd*, and the same rent is paid for all agricultural land, whatever the crop on it; but there is scarcely any other crop but *áman* paddy. Except those for mulberry lands, all the rents given for the Lálbágh Subdivision are paid in *sikká* rupees; and the *rayats* consequently have to pay a *báttá* or exchange premium of 1 *ánnd* per rupee extra to the *zamíndárs*, when they pay their rents in current rupees.

Kándí Subdivision: low rice lands for late rice, from 4 *ánnás* to Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or from 1s. 6d. to £1, 10s. 0d. per acre; food grains, etc., from 4 to 8 *ánnás* per *bighá*, or from 1s. 6d. to 3s. per acre; sugar-cane, from Rs. 2 to Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or from 12s. to £1, 10s. 0d. per acre; garden, from Rs. 1. 8 0 to Rs. 4 per *bighá*, or from 9s. to £1, 4s. 0d. per acre; mulberry, from Rs. 3 to Rs. 12 per *bighá*, or from 18s. to £3, 12s. 0d. per acre.

The Collector is decidedly of opinion that the operations of Act X. of 1859, the Rent Law of Bengal, have not resulted in a general enhancement of rates of rent throughout the District. He believes, on the other hand, that its equitable provisions have often acted as a check on arbitrary and exorbitant assessments.

MANURE.—In the Rárh, or tract to the west of the Bhágirathí river, manure is in universal use; but in the Bágri, or eastern half of the District, it is rarely or never applied to the fields. Cow-dung and ashes are the only two kinds of manure known. Eight *maunds* of cow-dung would be considered a very liberal allowance for each *bighá* of land, or 17 hundredweights per acre. The value of this quantity, exclusive of cost of carriage, would be Rs. 2 or Rs. 3 per *bighá*, or from 12s. to 18s. an acre.

IRRIGATION is also largely adopted in the Rárh, and but seldom in the Bágri. In the former tract, owing to the conformation of the country and the quality of the soil, the crops are almost dependent upon an artificial supply of water; whereas, in the alluvial land between the Ganges and the Bhágirathí, the rainfall and the annual inundations are quite sufficient. Irrigation is conducted either from tanks, or by leading the water from natural channels. Irrigation-wells and artificial canals do not exist. The simple machinery employed is thus described in the Report of the Revenue Surveyor:—

'The chief modes of irrigation are as follow:—Where the dip is great, a bucket is slung at one end of a long bamboo, and the other end is weighted, generally with a lump of stiff clay. This machine is dipped and worked by a single man. For a small lift, the *dongá* or hollowed-out palm-tree is used. The smaller end is fixed on a pivot between two posts, on a level with the channel into which the water is to be poured, the larger end being dipped into the water in the reservoir below. To this log is attached from above a long bamboo, weighted with clay at the further end, in order to counterbalance the water in the dip-end of the *dongá*. This engine can be worked by one man. The *siuni*, or small bamboo and reed basket, is also used for the same purpose. It is made of a very flat shape, and is slung by four strings. Two men, one on either side of the water-cut from the reservoir, take a string in each hand, and by alternately lowering and raising their bodies, swing up the water very expeditiously into the *khets* or fields above.' No estimate can be given of the cost of irrigating a *bighá* of rice or sugar-cane land; but the actual outlay of money is very small.

FALLOW LAND.—Land which has borne exhausting crops is occasionally allowed to lie fallow for one year, and sometimes for two years. The rotation of crops on scientific principles is not known or practised, the same fields being commonly laid down in the same crops for each successive year.

NATURAL CALAMITIES: BLIGHTS.—The District of Murshidábád is occasionally subject to blights, but never to such an extent as to interfere with the general harvest. In the year 1869-70, the whole of the peas crop, and the greater part of the grain crop, in the Jangipur Subdivision were destroyed by a grub. No remedial measures are ever known to have been adopted to avert this form of agricultural calamity.

FLOODS are of common occurrence in the District, especially in the low-lying Bágri or eastern half, which is situated between the Bhágirathí and the Ganges. These calamities are caused, not by excess of local rainfall, but by the rising of the rivers before they enter the District. Owing to the course of the rivers and the general slope of the country, which is on the whole *towards* the rivers, a rise in their waters can rarely affect the whole of the District; and the floods that occur have seldom been so serious as to cause a universal destruction of the crops. The MS. Records of the Board of Revenue show that inundations have always been of frequent

occurrence in Murshidábád. The Collector states that the flood of 1823 was the most destructive that is on record. Inundations have also occurred in the years 1834, 1838, 1848, 1856, 1866, and 1870–71; but the flood of 1823 is the only one that may be said to have caused a general destruction of the crops. In 1848 and 1871 a great deal of mischief was done, but the results were only partial.

In illustration of the flood of 1870, when the embankments on the Bhágirathí gave way, and the waters swept down on to the District of Nadiyá, the following description of the consequences in Murshidábád is taken from the Annual Report of the Collector for that year:—'In the Bágri or eastern half of the District, a great portion of the *áus* rice crop was destroyed by the floods. Much of it was carried away by the water on the bursting of the Bhágirathí embankment at Náltákuri, before it could be placed in a position of safety; and nearly all the *áman* rice growing in the low lands was submerged and lost. The rice crop, however, in the Rárh or western half of the District was good, and the outturn is stated to have been above the average. The cold-weather crops in many parts of the District were destroyed by a third rise in the rivers. The heavy rain which fell at the beginning of February did a great deal of good to the indigo and mulberry crops, and enabled the lands to be broken up for the spring sowings. Although the crops, especially rice, were deficient, there was plenty of food in the District for those who could procure it. This, however, was by no means an easy matter for many of the suffering cultivators, who were living on *mácháns*, or bamboo platforms raised above the waters. It was found necessary to appoint a famine relief committee, subscriptions were raised, and the sanction of Government was obtained for the transfer of a sum of Rs. 741. 5. 4 (£74, 2s. 8d.), held in deposit on account of subscriptions to the North-Western Provinces Relief Fund, for the purpose of relieving the local distress. Food was sent out where it was wanted for man and beast; and in some cases boats were kept up, for the maintenance of communication with the inhabitants of the submerged villages. There was exhibited during this period a spirit of mutual assistance among the people, owing to which, and to the assistance given by the relief committee, not a single death from starvation occurred. The cattle even did not suffer much during the inundation; but when the waters subsided, many of them died from being then fed with the rank inundation grass. The total amount expended in the relief opera-

tions was Rs. 2927. 4. 2 (£292, 14s. 6d.).' It does not seem that these floods caused any extraordinary amount of illness. 'It was anticipated that there would be a large extra mortality; and in consequence, two native doctors were obtained from Government to meet the expected sickness. These men travelled from *thánd* to *thánd*, wherever disease was reported to be rife; but their reports showed that they had more chronic cases to deal with than acute cases of emergency.' 'On the whole, considering the exceptional circumstances of the time, and the great distress and misery into which a considerable portion of the inhabitants were plunged, the year was not an unhealthy one, though cholera committed great havoc in some parts of the District.' The price of rice, which is always governed by the prospects of the future as much as by the wants of the present, did not rise so much as might have been anticipated during the actual time of the flood. But the Collector attributes the high range of prices prevailing during 1872-73, which were on an average above those of the previous years, to the serious diminutions in stocks which had been caused by the inundation and its train of consequences. The liability of the Bágri tract of country to flood is thus graphically indicated by the Revenue Surveyor:— 'In the low lands near the Ganges the houses are very temporary structures. A light thatch and lighter walls, unraised, suffice for the wants of the inhabitants, who remove their property, house and all, as soon as the river waters rise high enough to top their *chárpáis* (native bedsteads). During an inundation they may often be seen lying on their *chárpáis* with the water well up the legs, either too lazy to move, or trusting to the chance that the water may rise no higher, and save them the trouble of moving at all.'

EMBANKMENTS have existed in this District from ancient times, but they have never been strong enough to confine the flood-waters on extraordinary occasions. The Collector (in 1871) was of opinion that the embankments then existing required to be strengthened, especially those protecting the populous city of Murshidábád; and that more ought to be constructed. The most important protective work in the District is a line of disconnected embankments along the left bank of the Bhágirathí, which extends from Palási (Plassey) bázár, *parganá* Palási, just within the District of Nadiyá, to Dádmutí, *parganá* Rokanpur, in this District, a distance altogether of about ninety-three miles. This is a Government embankment, and by Act vi. B.C. of 1873 was vested in Government, and placed

under the charge of the Collector and an Engineer. The Revenue Surveyor in 1857 writes thus concerning the embankments of the District:—'All the rivers in Murshidábád are liable to overflow their banks during the rains, and would annually flood the country but for the numerous *bands* (embankments), both Government and *zamíndárí*, which exist throughout the District. Accidents to these *bands* often occur; rats are particularly destructive to them; cattle passing and repassing cut them; and the inhabitants neglect to repair the breach in time. The fishermen of the interior *bíls* and *kháls* have also often the credit of coming in the night and making small cuts in them, to secure a fresh influx of fish from the large rivers to supply their fishing grounds. A very small injury suffices to destroy a *band* in a single night; the end of a sharp bamboo thrust through is quite enough. But great as is the immediate injury caused by such accidents, they are not entirely unaccompanied by advantage. Fresh and rich deposits are brought in by the inundation waters, fertilizing and raising the soil, and greatly benefiting future crops. The reverse sometimes happens, and a layer of sand may impoverish what was formerly rich soil.'

The early MS. Records of the Board of Revenue are full of letters concerning the embankments of Murshidábád. It was, in theory, the duty of the neighbouring landowners to maintain them in good order, and to repair the breaches which were caused by the floods almost every successive year. As a matter of fact, the Government was habitually compelled by the default of the *zamíndárs* to undertake the work, and was left to recover the expenditure from the parties primarily liable as best it could. On some occasions money was advanced to the *zamíndárs*, but more commonly a special officer was told off to make the requisite repairs. In the year 1800, the Collector was directed to furnish the Superintendent of Embankments with Rs. 32,788 for the necessary repairs of that year; and was authorized to expose for sale the lands of the *zamíndárs*, to recover the balance due on this account for the preceding year. In the same year, the Government undertook the construction of a new embankment at Kálígáchhá at its own cost, and gave compensation to the *zamíndárs* for the land thus acquired. It would appear that this was the first embankment in Bengal constructed with *pakká* (masonry) sluices, for it was represented as a model on this account to the Collector of Jessor. In those days, as now, extraordinary measures were demanded to protect the exposed

city of Murshidábád. The banks of the Bhágirathí just above the city were the especial charge of the Superintendent of Embankments, who seems to have been in some sense independent of the ordinary executive official, whether called Chief or Collector, and to have been entrusted with the general sanitary supervision of the city. In 1800, the Superintendent of Embankments wrote a letter to the Board, regarding the removal of certain houses; and in the following year he presented a report respecting the filling up of hollows in the city of Murshidábád.

DROUGHTS.—The District of Murshidábád is also subject to droughts, which arise from deficient local rainfall. No safeguards against such a disaster are known to be adopted. The Collector suggested in 1871 that an irrigation canal through the Rárh or western half of the District would be a great boon to that part of the country. The drought of 1865, which was followed by the wide-spread famine of the following year, is the only instance within the memory of the present generation in which the general prosperity of the District has been seriously affected by such a cause. Some account of this occurrence, of the great famine in 1770, and of the recent scarcity of 1874, will be given on a subsequent page.

COMPENSATING INFLUENCES in case of inundation have been distinctly observed to act in Murshidábád District. Mr. Bradbury, C.S., Assistant Magistrate, reported as the result of his personal observation during the disastrous year 1870, that 'while in many low-lying places the crops were almost entirely destroyed by submersion, the peasants in a few places were congratulating themselves that the floods had brought down an abundant supply of water, which enabled them to raise a larger quantity of rice from their lands than they had obtained for several years past.' The Deputy-Collector, also, Bábu Bankim Chandra Chattarji, who went round a considerable portion of the District during the height of the inundation, observed, that 'while on the more exposed lands in the north, the destruction of the growing crops was great, yet the southern part of the District, which is by its situation inaccessible to any overwhelming rush of flood water, bore an unusually fine harvest.' It is, however, very doubtful whether the gain indicated above is sufficient to compensate for the loss, unless the fertilizing influence of the rich deposit of silt, often left by the receding waters, be taken into account. In the case of drought, no similar compensating influence has ever been observed.

FAMINE WARNINGS.—The maximum price of common husked rice during the famine of 1866-67 was 6 *sers* for the rupee, which is equivalent to Rs. 6. 10. 8 a *maund*, or 18s. 2d. per cwt.; and of paddy or unhusked rice, Rs. 3. 4. 0 a *maund*, or 8s. 10d. per cwt. The Collector, in 1871, was of opinion that prices had then returned to their normal rates. He considers that famine rates might be said to be reached when ordinary rice is selling at Rs. 4 a *maund*, or 11s. 0d. per cwt.; and that at that point Government aid would become necessary. He states that the ordinary price of coolie labour is Rs. 4 a month, and he assumes the quantity of rice required by each individual to be $\frac{3}{4}$ of a *ser*, or $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. a day. It is evident therefore that, putting aside the aged and infirm, and those incapacitated from earning their own livelihood, the ordinary rate of wages would be insufficient to provide the necessaries of life, when rice reaches the rate specified. The Collector further considers, that if the price of rice were to rise in January or February to as much as Rs. 2. 8. 0 a *maund*, or 6s. 10d. per cwt., that rate should be regarded as an indication of approaching scarcity. Famine, however, might yet be escaped; for if the prospects of the coming harvest were to continue good, this rate of price might be maintained throughout the year without serious distress. The *bázár* rates always depend quite as much upon the anticipations of the coming harvest as upon the results of the past year, except in the extreme case when the country has been entirely denuded of grain. The consumption of *áman* rice is much greater than of *áus*, and the danger of famine would be very imminent in the event of a total failure of the *áman* crop. There are two varieties of *áus*, the one fine and the other coarse; of which the latter is consumed almost solely by the cultivators and the very poor. If the *áman* crop were to fail, it would hardly be possible that the *áus* harvest, however abundant, should avert actual famine. There is little or no fear of the isolation of any part of the District, if extensive importations of grain should be required, except, perhaps, in some portion of the Kándí Subdivision in the south-west, where the roads are exceptionally few and bad, the rivers unnavigable, and the railway diverges westwards towards Bardwán.

FAMINE OF 1769-70.—This great calamity fell with great severity on the part of Bengal surrounding Murshidábád. The following account is mainly taken from the statements made at the time by

Mr. Becher, who was Resident at the Darbár of Murshidábád. They are extracted from the *Memoir on the Famines which affected Bengal in the Last Century*, by Sir George Campbell. The first allusion is in August 1769, when Mr. Becher reported 'the alarming want of rain which has prevailed throughout all the upper parts of Bengal, both the last and this season, and particularly the latter, to a degree which has not been known in the memory of the oldest man.' On 26th August he adds, 'There is great reason to apprehend that in all the Districts to the northward of Nadiyá the crops of rice will be very short indeed. Since the season for rain began, they have hardly had any; and if God does not soon bless this country with plentiful showers, the most fatal consequences will ensue,—not only a reduction in the revenues, but a scene of misery and distress that is a constant attendant on famine.' All through the closing months of 1769 the drought continued, and the worst anticipations were realized. In the beginning of February 1770, the Resident, in conjunction with the native authorities of Murshidábád, arranged a plan to have rice distributed daily in the city at six places, at half a *ser* (one pound) to each person. The Government, in reply, inform him that he might be assured of their concurrence in every measure for the relief of the poor, and earnestly recommend his taking every step towards that purpose. On the 30th March he states that the Districts which had more particularly suffered by the unfavourableness of the season were Purniah, Rájmahál, Bírbhúm, and a part of Rájsháhí. The measures of relief which he adopted were advances to *rayats*, remissions of revenue, and distributions of food. A little later he says that he had intended to proceed on tour, but was deterred for the present, being 'persuaded that, though my humanity may be shocked at the numberless scenes of distress that would present themselves to my view, little would remain in my power to contribute to their comfort, while God pleases to hold from them the blessing of rain, and the country remains parched and unfit for cultivation. The distress of the inhabitants does not only proceed from scarcity of provisions, but in many parts they are without water to drink.' His Assistants were out in their Districts, and all tell the same painful story. In the beginning of June we have another report from the Resident at Murshidábád. 'Up to the end of March,' he says, 'the *rayats* hoped for rain, but God was pleased to withhold that blessing till the latter end of May. The

scene of misery that intervened, and still continues, shocks humanity too much to bear description. Certain it is, that in several parts the living have fed on the dead; and the number that have perished in those provinces which have suffered most is calculated to have been within these few months as 6 to 16 of the whole inhabitants.' On the 18th of June he writes, 'Misery and distress increase here daily; rice at six and seven *sers* for the rupee, and several days there have been lately when there was not a grain to be purchased. A happy precaution it was, ordering a supply of rice from Bákarganj; without it, many of the Company's immediate attendants even must have starved.' In July the distress reached its climax. On the 12th of that month the Resident reported as follows:—'The representations I have hitherto made from hence, of the misery and distress of the inhabitants for want of grain and provisions, were faint in comparison to the miseries endured in, and within 30 miles of, the city. Rice only 3 *sers* for a rupee, other grain in proportion; and even at these exorbitant prices, not nearly sufficient for the supply of half the inhabitants; so that in the city of Murshidábád alone, it is calculated that more than five hundred are starved daily; and in the villages and country adjacent, the numbers said to perish exceed belief. Every endeavour of the ministers and myself has been exerted to lessen this dreadful calamity. The prospect of the approaching crop is favourable; and we have the comfort to know that the distress of the inhabitants to the northward and eastward of us is greatly relieved from what they have before suffered. In one month we may expect relief from our present distresses from the new harvest, if people survive to gather it in; but the numbers that I am sensible must perish in that interval, and those that I see dying around me, greatly affect my feelings of humanity as a man, and make me as a servant to the Company very apprehensive of the consequences that may ensue to the revenues.'

Rain came at the end of July; but, as almost invariably happens, the long-continued drought was succeeded by disastrous floods, which caused great damage in the low lands of Rájsháhí and the eastern Districts. The excessive rainfall caused also much sickness among the people; and at the height of the famine small-pox had broken out, to which the young Nawáb himself fell a victim. As late as September, it was reported that the people near Kásimbázár were suffering from want of food. In October the prospect brightened;

and on the 14th December the Government could inform the Court of Directors that the famine had entirely ceased.

The measures adopted to relieve the starving population in the city of Murshidábád appear very inadequate when judged by the modern standard. The account of the Bákarganj rice received shows only Rs. 124,506 expended on this purchase. A further sum of Rs. 87,000 was sanctioned for the gratuitous distribution of rice; but of this sum the Company was to pay only Rs. 40,000, or less than half, the remaining portion being defrayed by the Nawáb and his ministers. This sum was, however, far exceeded; and Mr. Becher writes pathetically to beg the Council to believe that 'neither humanity nor policy would admit of a stop being put to the distribution earlier than was done.' He continues, 'I have only to observe that these gentlemen (Muhammad Rezá Khán and his officers), independent of this distribution, helped to preserve the lives of many by their charitable donations, as, I believe, did every man of property in these parts. Indeed, a man must have had a heart of stone that had the ability and would have refused his mite for the relief of such miserable objects as constantly presented themselves to our view. I understand it to be esteemed good policy in all Governments to preserve the lives of the people; on this principle of humanity the distribution of rice took place.'

IN THE FAMINE YEAR OF 1866 the District of Murshidábád lay just outside the limits of extreme suffering. The neighbouring Districts to the south, Nadiyá and Bardwán, experienced all the severity of the dearth; but in Murshidábád itself no lives were lost from starvation, and the intervention of Government relief was never required. The following paragraphs are taken from the Report of the Famine Commissioners, vol. i. pp. 119-120:—

'The pressure of high prices was much felt in this District, rice selling at from 7 to 9 *sers* per rupee in part of June, July, and part of August; but very great relief was afforded by native liberality. The rich Hindustání merchants settled in the neighbourhood of Murshidábád (Rái Dhanpat Sinh and others), and several of the wealthier residents of that city and of the sister town of Barhampur, distributed food largely to the poor; and a rich and benevolent widow, the Rání Swarnamayi, distinguished herself by great liberality at several different places. Up to a certain date it was hoped that there would be no actual famine; but in the course of July it was found that much local distress was beginning to appear in the

south-eastern corner of the District adjacent to Nadiyá. The local committee, presided over by the Commissioner, immediately sent out food, and an active native officer was specially deputed to ascertain the facts and superintend the operations. The distress was for a short time very considerable, but it was relieved by an ample distribution of food. Eight feeding centres were established, and at one of these the number receiving rations was at one time as high as 1800 persons, mostly women and children. The plan was adopted of giving to each three days' uncooked food at a time, and thus much of the inconvenience of the feeding centres was avoided; but, of course, this required fuller supplies and better superintendence than was available in the Districts where the famine was most severe. The indulgence does not seem to have been abused, for as soon as the early rice crop was cut, the distress ceased, and the relief operations were discontinued. The relief in this District was entirely supplied from private funds, without any aid from the North-West fund, the Government, or any other external source.'

THE SCARCITY OF 1874 was also felt only to a slight extent in the District of Murshidábád, which again lay on the border-land of the distressed area. The price of rice undoubtedly rose very high, and the export of this grain from the river marts of the District towards the North-West entirely ceased; but the crisis was tided over without recourse to relief operations on a grand scale. The interference of Government was limited to the grant of an extraordinary sum of £7500 to the District Road Cess Committee. This money was devoted to constructive works wherever a demand for labour arose, and in its allotment the chief consideration was to spend the money in the most beneficial manner. Charitable relief was only given indirectly from this source, and no further operations were required to mitigate the distress. The application of the above-mentioned special fund will be given in detail on a subsequent page under the heading Roads (p. 142), to which subject it more properly belongs.

FOREIGN AND ABSENTEE PROPRIETORS.—In 1871 the Collector reported that there were 12 European proprietors on the rent-roll of the District, paying a Government Revenue of £12,406. With these there were 21 Hindu co-sharers holding land in common; but there is no record to show the proportion of revenue paid by each. At the same date there were 1299 Muhammadan proprietors, who paid £12,779; with whom there were 144 Hindu co-sharers.

There were 13 Jain proprietors, paying £2095, with whom there were 25 Hindu co-sharers. The number of Hindu proprietors was 3716, paying a total revenue of £106,050. The Collector is of opinion that there are altogether about 100 absentee landlords on the rent-roll of the District.

MEANS OF COMMUNICATION: ROADS.—The Collector in 1871 made the following return of the 13 principal lines of road in the District under local management, together with their annual cost of repair:—Metalled roads—(1) Barhampur and Murshidábád road; length, 10¾ miles; cost, £500. (2) Azímganj road; length, 7 miles; cost, £400; petty repairs, £100. Unmetalled roads—(3) Jalangí road; length, 27½ miles; cost, £190. (4) Mírganj road; length, 16½ miles; cost, £80. (5) Beauleah road; length, 20 miles; cost, £120. (6) Kándí road; length, 21½ miles; cost, £60. (7) Mankará road; length, 3½ miles; cost, £20. (8) Sútí-Rájmahál road; length, 29½ miles; cost, £90. (9) Bhagwángolá-Murcha road; length, 11½ miles; cost, £100. (10) Jangipur-Kamra road; length, 5 miles; cost, £100. (11) Murarái road; length, 14¾ miles; cost, £250. (12) Pakaur-Dhulián road; length, 15 miles; cost, £500: total length, 182½ miles; total cost, £2410. The preceding are local roads. There are besides two roads in the District under the Department of Public Works:—(1) the road from Krishnagar to Barhampur, of which about 22 miles lie within Murshidábád District; and (2) the road from Barhampur to Bhagwángolá, which passes through Murshidábád city and Jiáganj, 22 miles in length. For these two roads no details of expenditure can be ascertained. No large markets have lately sprung up on any of these means of communication.

The following later information concerning the roads in Murshidábád District is taken from the Report of the District Road Cess Committee for the year ending 30th September 1874. The committee consists of 49 members; eight meetings were held during the year, at which an average of 13 members attended. The year was of an exceptional character, as the operations undertaken were intended to be partly of the nature of relief works, and were supported by an extraordinary grant from Government for that object. It is true that the scarcity of 1874 was not severely felt in Murshidábád. No special staff of relief officers was required. But yet the heavy expenditure for the year served the desirable purpose of finding work where it was most required, and moderating the

high price of food grains that undoubtedly prevailed in the District. The total receipts of the road fund for the year ending 30th September 1874 amounted to £13,771; of which £3993 was derived from cesses levied under Act X. (B.C.) of 1871, and £1705 from various tolls, while £7500 was a special grant-in-aid from the provincial reserve fund. The total expenditure was £13,757, of which £6528 was devoted to original work, and £5817 to repairs. The estimates for the ensuing year may also be given, as showing the normal financial condition of the road fund. They reveal a total of about £9400 on each side of the balance sheet.

Concerning the application of the Government grant of £7500, the following remarks are made:—'The Committee devoted this money to works wherever a demand for labour arose. Much of it might have been more profitably expended on the completion of special works; but the Committee considered that the money had been given by Government for the purpose of assisting the distressed, and that the chief consideration was to supply work where most required, and to allot the funds in the most beneficial way. The services of many of the planters and silk factors in the District were freely given, and were of great assistance in the execution of works in the vicinity of their residences.'

The following extracts from the list of the most important works executed during the year will give a fair conception of the difficulties which must be encountered in road-making in Lower Bengal:—

'*Barhampur and Bhagwángolá Road.*—Metalled; twenty miles in length. This road was repaired and put in good order from Barhampur to Jiáganj, a distance of fourteen miles. From Jiáganj to Bhagwángolá, a distance of six miles, the road is in a wretched state, as sufficient funds have never been obtained to repair the great damage caused by the breach of the Naltakurí embankment in the year 1871. During the year under report, two miles were re-metalled. Unfortunately, a breach of the embankment occurred again this year. As in 1871, the bridge at Kálukhálí has been destroyed, and a breach of over 200 feet made in the road. It is an important and much frequented thoroughfare, connecting the Bhágirathí with the Ganges during the rainy season; and the Committee regret that they are unable, in justice to the other numerous roads under their charge, to allot as much money to this road as would be necessary to keep it in first-class order.

'*Barhampur and Patkabárí Road.*—This is a new road, thirty

miles in length. From Chaltiá *bíl*, near the *kacharis*, to Rájdharpárá, a distance of three miles, the road was undertaken, together with the Gorá-bázár drainage scheme, as one work, the excavated earth having been so thrown up as eventually to form a roadway. This portion still remains unfinished, but a great deal of earthwork has been done. From Harispur to Maimudpur on the Bhairab river, a distance of nine miles, the road was completed. From Rájdharpárá to Harispur, a distance of five miles, the road was partially undertaken; it will be completed in the ensuing year. From Maimudpur to Patkabárí, the road has been partially repaired in places that were bad; and it will be forthwith completed, as far as funds are available. This is one of the most useful and important works that has been undertaken, as it brings the Headquarters of the District into communication with the productive *thánás* of Hariharpárá and Nawádá in the east and south-east.

'*Murshidábád and Panchgáon Road.*—Newly opened out from Dahapárá, opposite Murshidábád, to Panchgáon on the *bádsháhí* road, seventeen miles in length. This road has been completed from Panchgáon to the Jibanti bridge, a distance of ten miles. An embankment has been thrown across the Básiá *bíl*, between Panchgáon and Nabagrám, without the difficulty that used to be experienced. An opening of some 500 or 600 feet has been left in the middle of the *bíl*, at which there will be a public ferry during the rainy season, while during the cold and hot weather a temporary bridge is constructed at the expense of the Road Fund. The embankment stood the high floods of last year, but will require raising another three feet. From Jibanti to Dahapárá, a distance of seven miles, the road has been partially constructed;—it will be completed during the current year. This is a most useful work, it being, in fact, the great western road of the District, connecting the *bádsháhí* road (which runs nearly north and south in the western part of the District), and I hope eventually Rámpur Hát and the railway, with the western part of the city of Murshidábád, and thence, by roads north and south, with Azímganj and the suburbs of Barhampur, on the opposite side of the river. The bridging of the Básiá *bíl* would be most desirable, but it would be a very expensive work, and far beyond the means of the Committee.

'*Bádsháhí Road.*—This road, as now diverted, runs from Jorur, near Jangipur, on the Murárai road, due south through the District, for a length of about thirty-five miles. From Jorur to Nawádá Station

on the Nalhátí State Railway the road was half completed, and a great deal of work has been done on other sections. Cart traffic has already commenced on it. Until recently no carts were kept by the villagers in that part of the District, all merchandise being carried by pack bullocks. The road has been almost completed from Panchgáon to the southern boundary of the District. The approaches to the Dwarká river remain to be made, and several bridges will be required for this road before its full value can be appreciated. The Committee hope to do this gradually. One of the greatest difficulties is the extensive Nágar *bíl*, between Sherpur and Khargáon, which requires high and strong embankments and heavy bridging.

'*Road on the west or right bank of the Bhágirathí.*—The portion of the road on the west bank of the Bhágirathí from Azímganj to Ránshah *ghát*, opposite Barhampur, has been completed to within a mile of the *ghát*. A large traffic is already showing itself, the distance between Barhampur and Azímganj being considerably shorter by this road than by that on the eastern bank. Repairs have also been executed on other sections; and it is hoped that in course of time the whole length of road from Raghunáthganj (opposite Jangipur) to Rámnagar, in the extreme south-west of the District, may be put in proper order.

'*Kándí Road.*—This road, twenty-two miles in length, connects Barhampur with Kándí, and with the *bádsháhí* road at the boundary of the District. It was repaired and kept in fair order during the year. A great deal of work was done on the portion between Kándí and the *bádsháhí* road (four miles in length), which was made into a raised causeway. The road suffered severely from the overflowing of the Mor river, in consequence of excessive floods. The embankments of this river are kept up by the *zamíndárs*, but, as might be expected, not with such care as to be able to resist the heavy inundation of the past year.

'*Jalangí Road.*—This road, perhaps the most important of those in the eastern portion of the District, twenty-seven and a half miles in length, was kept in fair order during the year by the planters and silk factors residing in that part of the District. It has suffered considerably from the flood water; the bridges are in a very bad state, and they require to be re-constructed in many cases. The road is, in fact, underbridged throughout almost its entire length.

'*Murarái Road.*—This road, fourteen miles in length, which

connects Jangipur with the East Indian Railway, is a very important one. It crosses the Páglá river, and a considerable extent of inundated country. The bridges are quite insufficient for the waterways required, and the road is almost impassable during the flood season. On the East Indian Railway a bridge has been constructed for the *chhotá* Páglá, of twenty-five openings, each 28 feet wide; and one of four openings, each 50 feet wide, for the Páglá; and there are also many smaller bridges in the vicinity of these. The bridge near Páikár has to take the bulk of the Páglá water, and it is no wonder that it has been so much injured. Had it not been that the flood water swept over the road for more than a mile, the bridge would infallibly have been destroyed. It would require a very large proportion of the Committee's funds to bridge the Murarái road properly.

'During the ensuing year, it is proposed to bridge the portion of the Kándí road between Kándí and the *bádsháhí* road, to construct a bridge on the Jangipur and Kámrá road, to improve some of the bridges on the Jangipur and Murarái road, and to complete the bridging of the Rámpur Hát and Dongáon road. It is also proposed to metal the first two miles of the Krishnagar road, near Barhampur; to re-metal three miles of the Bhagwángolá road, and repair two miles; and lastly, to repair all the District roads as far as funds permit.

'I consider that the most important works that remain to be completed are as follow:—

'(*1st.*) The establishment of thorough communication between Rámpur Hát and Murshidábád, and thus with Barhampur, Azímganj, and other places. We have already an almost completed road from Dahapárá, opposite Murshidábád, to Panchgáon, while on the other side there is a very fair road from Rámpur Hát to Dongáon. I have recently inspected the country between Dongáon and Panchgáon, where there is no road, and have given orders for a survey, in order to lay down a good line. The distance is only some seven miles, and the benefit of complete communication between Rámpur Hát and the important towns of the east would be very great.

'(*2d.*) The completion of the Barhampur, Hariharpárá, and Patkahárí road. I trust that much will be done towards this in the current year.

'(*3d.*) The completion and bridging of the *bádsháhí* road.

'(*4th.*) The completion of the road on the west bank of the Bhágirathí.

'(*5th.*) The feeder road from Jangipur to Murarái, and from Dhulián to Pakaur or Bíjápur, on the East Indian Railway.'

RAILWAYS.—A portion of the main loop-line of the East Indian Railway, about 30 miles in length, runs through the western portion of the District. It traverses those *thánás* which have recently been transferred from Bírbhúm District and the Santál Parganás. The following are the stations, beginning from the south :—Rámpur Hát, Nalhátí, Murarái.

THE NALHATI AND AZIMGANJ STATE RAILWAY lies entirely within the District of Murshidábád. It runs almost due east from Nalhátí, a station on the main loop-line of the East Indian Railway, to Azímganj, a mercantile town on the Bhágirathí, directly opposite to Jiáganj ; with a total length of 27¼ miles, or, including sidings, 28¾ miles. This railway was constructed in 1862 by a private company, at an estimated cost of £80,000 ; the gauge is only four feet, and the weight of the rails 31 lbs. to the yard ; the steepest gradient is 1 in 100, which continues for a distance of 10 chains ; and out of the total length of 27¼ miles, 10 are either up or down hill. The names of the stations, starting from Nalhátí are — Nawádá, Bokhárá, Ságardighí, Sáhápur, and Azímganj. It was hoped that this undertaking would develop and open up the traffic of Murshidábád and the neighbouring towns ; but, as a private speculation, it was found to be a complete failure. On the 1st of April 1872 it was acquired by Government at the price of £30,000 cash ; an equal sum having been previously paid in the form of guaranteed dividends at 5 per cent., in connection with the Oudh and Rohilkhand Company. As a matter of fact, therefore, the total cost to the present proprietors has been £60,000 ; but the Government of India call the capital only £30,000, and on this basis, the line, including rolling stock, cost £1100, 9s. od. per mile. During the concluding nine months of 1872 the net earnings amounted to £2419, 8s. od., which would give an interest on capital of about 10 per cent. per annum. The following figures are taken from the Bengal Administration Report for 1873-74. The Nalhátí State Railway, in the course of the year 1873, carried a total of 77,264 passengers, of whom 71,625 were third class ; the total receipts were £8445, 6s. od., of which £5683, 18s. od., or 67·23 per cent., was derived from passenger

traffic, and the remainder from merchandise; the working expenses amounted to £5072, 8s. od., or 60·0 per cent. of the total receipts; the net profits, therefore, were £3372, 18s. od., or slightly more than 11 per cent. per annum on the estimated capital of £30,000; the number of the European staff was 1, and the native staff 183. This favourable return fully confirms the opinion expressed by Sir G. Campbell two years earlier, that 'the Nalhátí Branch Railway is an excellent specimen of what a cheap branch line in India ought to be, both as to construction, stock, management, and buildings.' It will be observed that by far the larger portion of the receipts is derived from passenger traffic. The railway has not succeeded in intercepting, even in the cold season, the considerable trade which passes down the Bhágirathí, or is carried on at Bhagwángolá and Dhulián on the Ganges. The Collector of Murshidábád, in his Administration Report for 1872-73, thus describes the course which the goods traffic continues to follow:—'Cotton and jute are consigned in large quantities to the Azímganj merchants, are landed at Bhagwángolá in the rains, and at Alátalí or New Bhagwángolá in the dry season; thence sent in carts *via* Kándí to Synthiá, and so by rail to Calcutta. Although Azímganj is so near to Bhagwángolá, a small quantity only of these goods finds its way to Calcutta by means of the branch railway to Nalhátí.' The line altogether is on a small scale, and presents several strange features. The carriages look like broadened omnibuses, and are drawn by tiny locomotives, combining engine and tender in one, which are manufactured in Paris, and driven by natives of India. The line follows for the most part the undulations of the country. Down hill the train runs along merrily, but as the little engine toils up the gradient, the passengers may, and sometimes do, jump out and walk alongside, getting in again when the head of the ascent is reached. The average speed is only 11 miles an hour.

The Supplement to the *Calcutta Gazette* of 1st March 1876 contains a complimentary Resolution of Government, concerning a proposed new railway. It states that Rái Dhanpat Sinh Bahádur of Azímganj has offered to construct, at his own expense, a branch line from Ránághát, on the Eastern Bengal Railway, opposite Sántipur in Nadiyá District, to Bhagwángolá on the Ganges, in Murshidábád. The projected line would run by Krishnagar, Barhampur, and Murshidábád, and would be connected by a ferry with the Nalhátí State Railway, and thus brought into communication with the East Indian

system. It is needless to indicate the commercial advantages that would follow, but at present no definite action has been taken.

The trade of Azímganj has considerably developed since that town became a railway terminus, but not, perhaps, to such an extent as might have been anticipated. Murarái, however, which was a miserable village in 1860, has become a most important centre of trade since the opening of the East Indian Railway. It is now the rice mart from which the great bulk of the *áman* crop is despatched by rail, either to Calcutta, or towards the north-west, and ranks only second to Dhulián in the amount of its grain traffic.

There are no canals in Murshidábád District. The traffic that passes up and down the Bhágirathí will be described in a subsequent section, under the heading 'Commerce and Trade.'

MANUFACTURES.—The chief manufacture of Murshidábád District consists of the winding of silk. The following description is taken from the report of the Revenue Surveyor, dated 1857; but it must be recollected that since that time the silk trade of Bengal has considerably fallen off, owing to increasing competition from China and the south of Europe:—

'SILK FILATURES are found all over the District, wherever the mulberry will thrive, the property either of European or native merchants. The large factories belong almost exclusively to the former. The silk of Bengal is chiefly classed according to the old Residencies or head factories of the East India Company, that of Murshidábád being called Kásimbázár. It has already been mentioned (p. 100) that mulberry fields are much more valuable than any others, except the little plots on which *pán* is grown; but as the quality of the silk mainly depends on a full supply of good and fresh leaves to the worms, so the demand for mulberry constantly fluctuates, according as silk-worms are plentiful or otherwise. Sometimes, when worms are plentiful, the leaf is worth Rs. 2 per coolie load; when the worms fail, it is merely used as fodder for cattle, in the latter case not paying for the rent of the land. In favourable seasons, the gain to the mulberry-grower is great. The cocoons, owing to the natives feeding their worms on the least possible quantity of mulberry, have greatly decreased of late years in quality and size. During the time that the Company worked the filatures, fresh stock from China and France was yearly brought to recruit the supply in this country. This practice has also been

resorted to of late years, in the filatures of some of the European merchants. There are in each year three seasons, locally termed *bands*, of hatching the eggs, spinning and gathering the cocoons. The November *band*, from 1st October to end of February; March *band*, from 1st March to 30th June; July (or *barsát*) *band*, from 1st July to 30th September. The worms thrive best in the cold season, and the silk is then better in quality, and much more valuable. The March *band* is not so good, and the rainy-season *band* the worst. A quantity of cocoons are selected and kept for stock, which are termed *sánchu*, and are very valuable. Natives travel sixty and eighty miles from their homes to obtain worms of a good breed, or from localities noted for early breeding. These are taken by the purchasers to their homes and carefully kept; a few days after the moths come out they lay their eggs, which are hatched in about ten or twelve days. The young worms require the greatest care and attention. They must be fed daily. They must be kept perfectly clean, and, above all, defended from the attacks of the ichneumon-fly, which selects the finest worms in which to insert its eggs; and all dead worms must be immediately removed. Worms attacked by the ichneumon-fly spin as usual, perhaps somewhat earlier, and the change to chrysalis is effected about the time that the fly's grub comes to life. It then feeds on the chrysalis, and eventually eating its way through the cocoon, destroys its value. From the time the worm leaves the egg to its beginning to spin, a month or six weeks elapses, according to the season of the year, the longest period being in the cold season. About three or four days are occupied by them in spinning.

'The manufacturer generally advances money to the *rayat* for the purchase of worms and mulberry plant; and in such cases a small reduction in price is generally made by the *rayat* for his cocoons. But the risk in advancing money is great; because, should anything happen to the worms or cocoons to decrease the quality or quantity of the silk, or perhaps destroy the yield altogether, the *rayats* are generally too poor to repay the advance. In Murshidábád District cocoons are purchased by number. In Rájsháhí, the adjoining District across the Ganges, by weight. Of the two, the first system is perhaps more generally preferred by the purchaser. During the November and March *band*, it is usual to put the cocoons in the sun for five or six days. *Chárpáis* stuck up on end, mats, cloths,—all kinds of things may be seen used for placing them upon. They are

then baked, and will with care keep for a month or more, affording ample time for working off. But the rainy-season *band* must be worked off at once, or the chrysalis changes, the moth "cuts out," and the cocoon is spoilt. It is necessary to heat the water in which the cocoons are kept whilst being spun off, in order to dissolve the gluten that binds the fine fabric together. Under the old system, each pair of *katánís* or spinners had to be provided with a fireplace, to heat their basins of boiling water. It required about 100 *maunds* of wood, each *maund* containing 60 *sers*, to work off one *maund* of silk. This quantity of wood used formerly to cost Rs. 12; but of late years (1857) the price has risen to double that sum. The wood is chiefly brought from the forests of Rájmahál. The consumption, however, has been so excessive as to lead to the adoption of a more economical process. Steam is now being introduced to heat the water, the spinning-room being fitted with a furnace, boiler, and steam main pipes. These latter pass alongside the rows of basins of water, with which they are connected by smaller pipes furnished with stop-cocks. The rush of heated steam into the basin of water at once heats it to the required temperature. By its use, besides greater cleanliness in working off the silk from the absence of soot-flakes, ash-dust, etc., which were caused by the numerous fires of the old system, there is a great saving in consumption of fuel. The expense in altering the old filatures is doubtless the chief cause why steam has not been already introduced into all, coupled, perhaps, with the indisposition to change felt by the natives. The *katánís* or winders receive wages at the rate of Rs. 5 per month. The *pákdárs*, who supply or feed the thread with fibres from the cocoons, as one after another is expended and thrown aside, receive Rs. 3 per month. The dexterity they acquire in handling the cocoons and keeping up the supply is astonishing. The *pákdárs* are generally young boys or girls, who get promotion to spinners after a few years. In Rájsháhí District, across the Ganges, women and girls are not employed. Advances have also to be made to these people, and their death or desertion often entails serious losses on manufacturers.

'Besides those who are occupied as above mentioned, weaving the silk prepared in the many small native *bánaks* or filatures also affords employment to a great number of hands. *Korás*, *sáris*, bandannas, etc. are prepared by these weavers, of various colours and patterns. The chief colours are white, green, scarlet, and yellow.

Silk pieces of almost any coloured tartan can be had to order if a pattern be given to guide the workmen. Handkerchiefs are made plain or stamped, of various colours, the stamp used being a coarse wooden one.'

The Collector, in his Administration Report of 1872-73, stated that the silk industry was reviving as compared with its condition in 1870, the year of the Franco-German war; but that it had greatly declined during the previous thirty or forty years. Mr. Cristoforis, an Italian gentleman in charge of filatures in the District, had tried some years before to naturalize Japanese silkworms, and was at first partially successful. The skein reeled from these worms was pronounced by the Silk Committee of the Agricultural Society to be worth Rs. 27 per *ser*, nearly double the price of ordinary Bengal silk. His next experiment, however, failed; and it is to be feared that the Japanese worm degenerates in the climate of Bengal. In 1872 the Collector estimated that the total number of filatures in the District, large and small, including those worked by natives, amounted to 334. Among the European owners, the most prominent names are Messrs. Watson & Co., Messrs. James Lyall & Co., and Messrs. Louis Payen & Cie. Of the total number of filatures, no less than 110 lie in *tháná* Barwá, due south of the civil station of Barhampur.

The total annual export of wound silk from Murshidábád District to Europe has been vaguely estimated at 228,000 lbs., which, at the average price of Rs. 15 per *ser*, would be worth £171,000. This only represents the out-turn of the European filatures. The amount of native wound silk is also considerable; and of this, much is woven in the District and exported, chiefly towards the north-west, in the form of manufactured goods.

The *Statistical Reporter* for May 1876, in a notice which deplores the rapid decline in the silk industry of Murshidábád, prints the following statistics, which deserve to be compared with those already given:—

'There are 45 filatures belonging to or under the management of Europeans in Murshidábád District, and 67 filatures belonging to natives. The number of basins in the former is not less than 3500; and in the latter, not less than 1600, making a total of 5100 basins. In addition to these, there are some 97 small filatures worked by natives in their homes, containing about 200 basins. Computing according to the house valuations recorded under the

Road Cess Act, the value of the whole of the filatures may be set down at not less than Rs. 450,000. Each basin is worked by two persons; the total number of persons employed is thus 10,600. One-half of these represent the skilled workmen; there is, besides, a large number of peons, overseers, and clerks. The quantity of silk manufactured yearly cannot be accurately ascertained, but it probably amounts to 3000 *maunds* (246,000 lbs.) in an ordinary year. Estimated at a low price, say Rs. 14 per *ser*, owing to the unfavourable state of the market, the value of the silk produced will be found to amount to the large sum of Rs. 1,680,000 (£168,000). The amount paid to rearers of silkworms on this quantity of silk is about Rs. 1,080,000, and to the spinners about Rs. 180,000. If to these sums is added the cost of establishment, Rs. 240,000, the expenditure involved in manufacturing the product of an ordinary year will be found to amount to about Rs. 1,500,000 (£150,000). The margin of profits is not large, considering the outlay and the risks of the trade. These figures refer to spinning only.

'The weaving of silk cloths forms another branch of the industry of considerable importance. Looms are found in no less than 137 villages of the District. The villages of Basuá, Bishnupur, and Margrám, in the Rampur Hát Subdivision, and Mirzápur in the Jangipur Subdivision, especially contain a large number of weavers. In these two Subdivisions alone there are 1450 weavers, and the number in the whole District may be computed at 1900, besides the adult members of their families, who generally assist them in weaving. These weavers work under advances from silk merchants. They are supplied with raw material by the latter, and return the manufactured cloth, receiving wages for their labour. Last year from eighty to one hundred thousand pieces of silk were woven, the value of which could not have been less than Rs. 600,000 (£60,000). The amount spent amongst weavers for wages was about Rs. 100,000 (£10,000).

'The extent of the mulberry cultivation may be estimated at 50,000 *bighás* (17,000 acres), an estimate more probably under than above the mark. The rent of this land probably amounts to Rs. 150,000 (£15,000); while an average profit per annum of Rs. 10 on each *bighá* (£3 an acre) may be accepted as the gain of the cultivator of the present time (1876).'

INDIGO MANUFACTURE is not at present in a flourishing state in Murshidábád District. The following remarks on this industry are

taken from the Report of the Revenue Surveyor, dated 1857:—'The chief indigo factories are in the Bágri, or eastern half of the District. The rich low lands along the Ganges, the *chars* or islands in its course, and the low lands near *jhils* and water-courses, refreshed by inundation deposits, offer the best prospect to the planter. It often happens, however, that sand deposited is not good soil; that *chars* which yielded a splendid return one year, are moved lower down the river to another next year; or that large tracts of land are found, on the subsidence of the rivers, to have been washed away. In addition, the casualties of wind and weather; too much sunshine; too much rain; too quick a rise of the rivers, forcing too early a cutting of plant, and affording little or no time to work it off; bad weather during the making season preventing good deposit of fecula, and a hundred other causes, all combine to make indigo planting as hazardous as it often is lucrative.'

Since the date of this Report, the manufacture of indigo has considerably fallen off. The unfortunate disturbances in 1859-60 were particularly disastrous to this District; and Murshidábád witnessed the most serious case of loss of life which took place during those troubled times in an attack upon a factory. Many ruined factories may now be seen in various parts of the District, and the concerns which continue to work are beset with difficulties. The mode of preparing the dye does not materially differ from that which has been described at length in the Statistical Account of Nadiyá District (vol. ii. pp. 97–101). The plant is bruised and fermented in vats of water. The dye is deposited in the form of a blue powder, which is collected, dried in presses, and formed into the cakes in which it is known in commerce. At the present time the annual out-turn from twelve different concerns averages about 3000 *maunds*, or 2214 hundredweights, of which the value may be estimated at seven *lákhs* of rupees, or £70,000.

Ivory Carving used to be carried on to a great extent at Kásimbázár. The carvers now live in Murshidábád city and Barhampur. They are clever workers, and can copy any models supplied to them. The toys and figures which they are in the habit of making are turned out with great skill, neatness, and despatch. The articles commonly made are elephants, caparisoned or plain, horses, equipages of all sorts with their drivers, palanquins with bearers, ships, boats, camels, oxen, marriage processions, servants of all classes, Hindu idols, table ornaments, chessmen,

draughtsmen, paper-cutters, flowers, cones, brush-handles, puzzles, letters, *kharams* or native shoes, carte-de-visite frames, walking-sticks, etc. The process is very simple, consisting only of chiselling with the hand and polishing. The polishing is done by means of fish scales. The finer workmanship is accomplished with a stylus, which the carvers call by the common native name for a pen, *kalam*.

Brass-Work.—The bell-metal work made at Barhampur, which is called *khágrái*, from Khágrá, the trading quarter of the town, is among the most famous in the country, and is highly prized by the natives of Calcutta and the metropolitan Districts. The metal not unfrequently contains a considerable proportion of silver. To this fact its superiority is partly due, as well as to the more elegant make and the greater polish given to the wares. The actual process of manufacture does not materially differ from that followed by the braziers in other Districts. The principal articles produced comprise plates of both large and small sizes, cups of various sorts, *pándáns*, and spittoons.

Miscellaneous Manufactures.—The city of Murshidábád is famous for its lace-work; clothes, gloves, slippers, caps, etc. are beautifully and skilfully embroidered with gold and silver lace. Another class of artisans in the city are celebrated for the skill with which they make musical instruments, and the tubes of hookahs. Jute and hemp are also worked up into gunny-bags, etc.; and the members of the Dom caste weave mats and basket-work to a considerable extent. Silk goods are still woven in various places, but this industry is now in a very decayed state. The two best-known patterns are called 'peacock's neck' and 'sunshade.' Coarse cotton cloths are woven in all parts of the District, but none of good quality. Towels and dusters can be obtained if ordered.

The Material Condition of the Manufacturing Classes is described by the Collector as being very low. The weavers in particular, who form the most numerous class of artisans in the District, are always in debt, and in their appearance very squalid and miserable. 'Their physique generally,' writes the Assistant-Magistrate of Lálbágh Subdivision, 'proves that they are leading an unhealthy and half-starved existence.' They live from hand to mouth, on low wages, which are not always punctually paid; and their work also is very precarious. Their life is one of sedentary labour, passed within filthy houses. The reason for their degraded

position is to be sought for in the decay of the silk-weaving industry. That the supply of skilled labour is at present greater than the demand is the general opinion among the native residents. The demand for the silk fabrics of Murshidábád has been steadily diminishing for years past; and before there is time for the supply of labour to sink to the diminished demand, there must always be great distress among the labourers during the process of adjustment. The downfall of the towns which owed their former prosperity to this industry bears palpable evidence to the change. Kásimbázár consists now merely of a few ruins, surrounded by a swamp. Mirzápur, in the Jangipur Subdivision, was a flourishing town less than twenty years ago, and its silk-weavers were the most numerous class; but now an atmosphere of hopeless decay broods over the whole place. In both these cases, no doubt, a change of sanitary conditions, and the outbreak of malarious fever, have contributed much to the results; but the weaving trade, which has deserted Kásimbázár and Mirzápur, has not settled elsewhere, and is gradually, but surely, dying out in the District.

The other artisans in Murshidábád, especially the braziers and the ivory-carvers, are much better off. They live far more comfortably than well-to-do agriculturists, and have a social position superior to that of both cultivators and weavers. One of the reasons for this marked difference between these two classes of manufacturers is, that the braziers and carvers are capitalists as well as labourers; they supply their own materials, and sell their work in their own shops. It may be laid down as a rule which universally holds good in this District, that all capitalist manufacturers who sell their own wares are well-to-do, while those who work for hire on the advance-system are very badly off.

The wages of the silk-weavers are regulated not by time, but by the quantity of work done. The rate varies from Rs. 2. 8. 0 to Rs. 4 for every five yards of silk woven; and the average, if reckoned by the day, would be somewhere about 5 *ánnás* or 7½d., but it must be recollected that few weavers are in constant employment. It is not possible to give any estimate of the wages of a brazier or other artisan of the class who are their own capitalists, for they do not work for hire. It may be stated generally, that the average wages of the manufacturing classes range from 3 to 6 *ánnás*, or from 4½d. to 9d. a day. Some of the best-paid classes may get as much as Rs. 15 per month, or £18 a year.

Except in the case of the silk and indigo manufactures, there is no well-marked distinction in the District between labour and capital. Allusion has already been made to the system of money advances for silk-spinning. Indigo cultivation is also carried on by a system of advances. There are no class of manufacturers in the District bound to work in a manner that affects their personal freedom.

DECAYING OR EXTINCT MANUFACTURES.—The decline in the silk-weaving industry, which has already been alluded to, may be realized from the fact that, so late as the time of Alí Vardí Khán, raw silk to the value of £875,000 was annually entered in the Custom House books at Murshidábád. This is exclusive of the European investments, which were not entered there, as being either duty free or paying duty at Húglí. Apart from the decaying silk manufacture, and the many skilled handicrafts which used to flourish at Kásimbázár, the Collector reports that there used to be formerly thriving manufactures of brass and iron at a place called Kánsáríbázár, a little to the north of Azímganj. There are now but few forges and shops remaining here, and the manufacture is almost extinct. It is not known that there are any traditions in the District of ancient processes of workmanship that have died out.

The following table shows the number of male skilled workers, mechanics, and artisans, arranged under their respective trades, according to the District Compilation based upon the Census of 1872.

MANUFACTURING CLASSES AND ARTISANS (MALES).

Occupation.	No. of Male Adults.	Occupation.	No. of Male Adults.	Occupation.	No. of Male Adults.
Indigo manufacturers,	4	Jewellers,	20	Jute-weavers,	15
Tar manufacturers,	3	Watchmakers,	4	Carpet-makers,	150
Contractors,	25	Potters,	1883	Dyers,	10
Bricklayers (*ráj-mistris*),	1612	Lime-makers,	85	Tailors,	1530
Stone-masons,	2	Cabinetmakers,	77	Shoemakers,	716
Sawyers,	9	Mat-makers,	193	Ornament-makers,	177
Carpenters,	2006	Basket-makers,	642	Net-makers,	3
Thatchers,	43	Toy-makers,	17	Thread-makers	55
Brick-dealers,	2	Hookah-makers,	61	Embroiderers,	11
Cart-builders,	15	Lacquered Ware makers,	18	Silk-spinners,	9
Blacksmiths,	1752	Garland-makers,	90	Blanket-makers,	4
Braziers,	109	Gilders,	2	*Daftrís*,	12
Bell-metal makers (*kánsáris*),	33	Shell-carvers,	517	Booksellers,	3
Tinmen,	2	Caneworkers,	60	Papermakers,	42
Kaldigars,	5	Workers in *solá*,	65	Compositors,	13
Goldsmiths,	1937	Cotton-carders,	23		
		Silk-weavers,	6290		
		Cotton-weavers,	11557	Total,	31,913

COMMERCE AND TRADE.—The District of Murshidábád occupies a very convenient situation for river traffic, lying between the two first offshoots of the Ganges, which leads southwards direct to Calcutta. The eastern half of the District, surrounded by the Ganges, Bhágirathí, and Jalangí, has from time immemorial been the seat of large commercial towns; and the East Indian Railway has lately opened out a new era of prosperity to the western portion. The principal seats of commerce are Jangipur, Azímganj, Jiáganj, the city of Murshidábád, Barhampur, including Khágrá, on the Bhágirathí; Bhagwángolá and Dhulián on the Ganges; Murárái, a railway station in the north-west of the District; and Beldángá in the south-east. Trade is carried on chiefly by permanent markets; but, in the case of a few articles, by means of village *háts*, held at stated intervals. The fairs most frequented for the purposes of buying and selling are those held at Dhulián in April, Jangipur in May, Chaltiá near Barhampur in April, Sáktipur in March, and Kándí in November. The chief articles of trade are rice, pulses, gram, oil-seeds, raw silk, woven silk, salt, cotton, cotton goods, sugar, tobacco, jute, hemp, gunny-bags, *ghí*, ivory ornaments, pottery, brass and bell-metal utensils, spices, indigo, and precious stones. The three great local manufactures, silk, indigo, and metal ware, are largely exported into other Districts and to Calcutta; and in the case of raw silk and indigo, through Calcutta to Europe. Much of the raw silk wound in Murshidábád is destined for the Lyons market. The silk cocoons are partly reared in the District, and partly imported from Maldah and Rájsháhí. The town of Jangipur is the centre of the silk trade. Apart from its manufactures, the agricultural produce of Murshidábád is more than sufficient to meet the local consumption. Rice especially is, in ordinary seasons, exported in large quantities, both up the Ganges towards the north-west, and by rail and boat to Calcutta. The chief imports into the District, received in exchange for these exports, are cotton cloth, salt, jute, and spices.

The Collector, in his Administration Report for 1872-73, gives the following description of the internal movements of trade within the District, and of the condition of the trading classes:—'Taking the District as a whole, it may be said that most commodities are the subject of export from, or import to, some part of it. Thus, to take the important article of rice, there are very considerable exports from the rice-producing west, or Rárh, to Calcutta, the north-

west, and the eastern parts of the District itself; while, on the other hand, the east, or Bágri, imports very largely from the rice-producing Districts on the further side of the Ganges. I am not in a position to state how the balance of trade in this staple ordinarily stands, but I incline to the opinion that during the past year the exports exceeded the imports. The chief commodities imported, other than rice, appear to be cotton, salt, jute, oil-seeds, sugar, tobacco, vegetables, and *ghí*, while the chief exports are indigo, silk, pulses, and salt. In the case of cotton, jute, and salt, large quantities of the imports in reality only pass through the District, and are sent on to other parts. Thus, cotton and jute consigned in large quantities to the Azímganj merchants are landed at Bhagwángolá in the rains, and at Alátalí, or New Bhagwángolá, in the dry season, and thence sent in carts *viá* Kándí to Synthiá, and so by rail to Calcutta. Salt also is imported in large quantities, merely for the purpose of re-shipment and transmission to other Districts. A very large proportion of the products of the manufacture of indigo and raw silk passes through the hands of the managers of three influential European firms, by whom exports are made to Calcutta; but the smaller native proprietor of factories also generally adopts the same course with regard to the bulk of his produce. During certain seasons of the year there is a very considerable internal trade, or interchange of commodities between the east and west of the District. In the cold weather, I have frequently met long processions of carts and pack-bullocks (chiefly the latter, if their owners come from the west, where roads are scarce and bad) laden with rice, the great produce of the west; and these will return with oil-seeds, or other cold-weather produce of the east, or *vice versâ*.

'So far as I have been able to ascertain, the year was one of more than usual commercial prosperity. Certainly, judging from appearances, I should conclude that the Oswáls or Jains of Azímganj, Báluchar, Murshidábád, and Barhampur, who are the principal merchants and bankers in the District, are rapidly accumulating wealth; and they evince now, as in former days, an inclination to invest a portion of their gains in the soil of the country where they have taken up their abode. These men appear to have a genius for trade, and their careful and frugal habits are eminently suited to the accumulation of money, being seldom disturbed by alternations of lavish expenditure, except in the case of religious observances.

They gratify their pride and love of show by the entertainment of retainers from the north-west; even as they have for some years past indulged their religious feelings by taking leases of some miles of the Bhágirathí from the *zamíndárs*, and preventing fish being caught in these waters. There is, however, reason to believe that not only have the larger merchants prospered, but that those whose transactions are on a much smaller scale have had cause to be grateful for the results of the year.'

The Collector also thinks it worthy of notice that in the north-western portion of the District, in *tháná* Palsá and part of *tháná* Mirzápur, commodities are usually exchanged according to the primitive method of barter. Rice is there a very common standard of value; and salt, fish, oil, sweetmeats, and most other necessaries, except clothing, are habitually bartered for rice.

STATISTICS OF RIVER TRADE.—The following statistics, which are the most complete and trustworthy that have yet been obtained, are derived from a Resolution of Government on 'The Boat Traffic of Bengal,' dated 18th October 1875:—

The trade between the District of Murshidábád and the Districts of Behar and of the North-Western Provinces, so far as it passes up and down the Ganges, is registered at Sáhibganj. The following are the results thus afforded, showing as far as possible the places of despatch and of destination. In the year 1872, the total amount of commodities of all kinds destined for Murshidábád, which passed Sáhibganj on its way down-stream, was 431,531 *maunds* or 15,797 tons; of which total, 104,659 *maunds* or 3832 tons were consigned to Jangipur, 145,254 *maunds* or 5317 tons to Jiáganj, and 181,618 *maunds* or 6648 tons to Dhulián. In 1873, the total amounted to 563,409 *maunds* or 20,624 tons; of which Jangipur took 99,052 *maunds* or 3626 tons, Jiáganj 189,285 *maunds* or 6929 tons, and Dhulián 275,072 *maunds* or 10,069 tons. In 1874, the year of scarcity, the total was 427,977 *maunds* or 15,667 tons; giving 89,778 *maunds* or 3286 tons to Jangipur, 109,659 *maunds* or 4014 tons to Jiáganj, and 228,540 *maunds* or 8366 tons to Dhulián. The up-stream traffic from Murshidábád, ascertained in the same way, amounted in 1872 to a total of 405,845 *maunds* or 14,857 tons; of which 132,996 *maunds* or 4868 tons were despatched from Dhulián, and 272,849 *maunds* or 9989 tons from Jangipur. In 1873, the total was 504,751 *maunds* or 18,477 tons; being 260,215 *maunds* or 9525 tons from Dhulián, and

244,536 *maunds* or 8952 tons from Jangipur. In 1874, the year of scarcity, the total up-traffic diminished to 125,070 *maunds* or 4578 tons; 102,305 *maunds* or 3745 tons from Dhulián, and only 22,765 *maunds* or 833 tons from Jangipur. In order to obtain the total river traffic of the above-mentioned towns, it would be necessary to add to the above figures the amount registered at Jangipur itself, as exported from these towns up and down the Bhágirathí, which has not been already included. The returns of the Bhágirathí traffic at Jangipur for 1874 show that 71,383 *maunds* or 2613 tons were exported down-stream, which had been originally shipped at Dhulián, and 27,775 *maunds* or 1016 tons from Jangipur itself. So far, therefore, as can be gathered from these registry stations, it may be roughly stated that the total river traffic, both up and down-stream, of Dhulián in 1872 amounted to 314,614 *maunds* or 11,516 tons; in 1873, to 535,287 *maunds* or 19,594 tons; and in 1874, to 402,228 *maunds* or 14,724 tons. The total traffic of Jangipur was, in 1872, about 377,508 *maunds* or 13,821 tons; in 1873, 343,588 *maunds* or 12,578 tons; and in 1874, 140,318 *maunds* or 5135 tons.

It is not possible to divide these totals among the many different commodities of which they are composed. It can only be affirmed generally of the imports that about 120,000 *maunds* or 4393 tons of sugar are received from the North-Western Provinces at the river marts of Murshidábád, to be either forwarded to Calcutta, or re-distributed among other Districts of western and central Bengal; and that a great quantity of tobacco and cotton is received on the same conditions. Concerning food-grains and oil-seeds, the Resolution from which all these figures are taken makes the following remarks:—

'One of the most important markets for cereals in Bengal is Dhulián. In 1872 it was ascertained by local inquiries that upwards of 300,000 *maunds* or 10,982 tons of *máskálái* were brought into this market during the year, partly from rural villages in the District, and partly from Maldah, Purniah, and Rájsháhí. Of this immense total, some part was exported to Bírbhúm, Bardwán, and Bánkurá, where the consumption of this pulse is large; and a considerable quantity up-country into Tirhut. In the same year, about 50,000 *maunds* or 1830 tons of gram were imported into Dhulián from Behar and Bhágalpur, and re-exported to Calcutta. The imports of wheat reached 200,000 *maunds* or 7320 tons, of which a little had been grown in the District; but the larger part came from Maldah,

Purniah, Bhágalpur, and Monghyr. The imports of oil-seeds are also put down at 200,000 *maunds* or 7320 tons. Both wheat and oil-seeds are re-exported, principally to Calcutta, but also to the neighbouring Districts.' Of the total quantity of pulses which pass Sáhibganj going up-stream, the greater part is shipped at Dhulián, and consigned to Roshrá and other places in the Patná Division. The amount of rice exported up-stream from the District of Murshidábád is returned as follows:—In 1872, 306,018 *maunds* or 11,202 tons; in 1873, 292,843 *maunds* or 10,720 tons; in 1874, the year of the scarcity, only 28,567 *maunds* or 1045 tons. 'The rice trade of Dhulián, the principal mart of Murshidábád, is not so brisk as that of some other places in the District. Jangipur surpasses it, and probably Murárái also. In the year 1872-73, Dhulián dealt in about 100,000 *maunds* or 3660 tons of rice, partly home-grown, but the greater part importations from Ráiganj in Dinájpur and Náráinganj in Dacca. Into the Jangipur market, during the same year, about 150,000 *maunds* or 5491 tons of rice were brought from the western part of the District. In 1873 the Sáhibganj registered exports from Jangipur amounted to 215,000 *maunds* or 7870 tons. From the west part of Murshidábád, or the Rámpur Hát Subdivision, where *áman* rice is grown almost to the exclusion of other crops, there are also large exports by rail, chiefly to Calcutta. During 1874 the total exports from this tract by rail were 288,372 *maunds* or 10,556 tons, of which 127,655 *maunds* or 4673 tons were consigned to Howrah, and 59,337 *maunds* or 2172 tons to Chandernagar or Bhadreswar. The remainder was despatched up-country.'

The returns of the Bhágirathí traffic registered at Jangipur, are to some extent a repetition of those already recorded on the Ganges at Sáhibganj. The returns of the down-stream traffic are but slightly affected by the addition of the goods shipped lower down the river than Sáhibganj, and include a small amount of traffic which starts afresh southwards from Dhulián and Jangipur. 'The up-stream traffic registered at Jangipur shows only the traffic shipped at stations on the Bhágirathí between Nadiyá town and Jangipur. The amount is inconsiderable, being about 300,000 *maunds* or 10,982 tons of all sorts of goods in 1873, and only 81,782 *maunds* or 2994 tons in 1874. The bulk of the traffic in 1873 consisted of rice despatched from Jangipur itself, to Revelganj and other Behar marts.' The following are the figures of the down-stream traffic. In 1873, 9040

boats, carrying 3,785,051 *maunds* or 138,559 tons; in 1874, 8344 boats, carrying 3,742,759 *maunds* or 137,011 tons. Of the total cargoes, nearly one-half in each year were composed of oil-seeds; while pulses (including gram) and wheat each constituted about one-seventh. 'A great number of the boats return empty from Calcutta, and proceed to Rájsháhí, Patná, Dinájpur, and Maldah, for cargoes of jute and rice. They sometimes go down the stream laden a second time during the inundation months; and in seasons when the channels of the river are exceptionally deep, even a third trip can be made by boats of moderate size in the course of five months. Of the total amount of the traffic which passes to Calcutta along the system known as the Nadiyá rivers, the Bhágirathí in 1873-74 carried a little more than one-half. The tolls levied at Jangipur on boats passing through the toll office amounted in 1870-71, the last year for which I can obtain the figures, to a sum of Rs. 84,352, or £8435, 4s. 0d. The greater part was expended in efforts to keep open the channel of the Bhágirathí, and generally on the improvement of the Nadiyá rivers.

The Resolution, from which so many extracts have already been made, states that the total import of salt into the District of Murshidábád during 1874 was 122,450 *maunds* or 4482 tons. This amount is brought by river, almost wholly by the Bhágirathí, and to it a small addition must be made for what is carried by the railway into the western part of the District.

From September 1875, the system of registration for boat traffic, which has been already described as existing at Sáhibganj and Jangipur, was extended to all the great water-ways of Bengal. The returns thus obtained are published monthly in *The Statistical Reporter*. The two following tables show (Table I.) the exports from the District of Murshidábád which were registered throughout Bengal during the six months, September 1875 to February 1876; and (Table II.) the imports into the District during the same period.

From these tables it appears that the exports in Class I. (articles registered by weight only) reached a total during the six months of 510,160 *maunds* or 18,675 tons; and the imports in the same class, 427,213 *maunds* or 15,639 tons, showing a balance in favour of the exports of 82,947 *maunds* or 3036 tons. This difference, however, is more than accounted for by the large exportation of food-grains, which, under the four headings of wheat, pulses and gram, rice,

[*Sentence continued on page* 165.

Statistics of the River Traffic of Murshidabad District for the Six Months ending February 1876. Table I. (Exports.)

Description of Goods.	September.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.	Total.
Class I.	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*
Coal and coke,	7,865	9,920	1,950	30	18	30	19,813
Cotton,	534	945	269	230	119	...	2,097
Chemicals and medicines,	2	...	...	...	...	...	2
Intoxicating drugs,	...	5	...	...	...	...	5
Cochineal,	18	...	...	...	...	...	18
Vermilion,	...	...	...	5	400	...	405
Lac-dye,	109	...	...	...	...	40	149
Red-wood,	5	...	...	...	...	...	5
Red-earth,	...	...	...	...	...	200	200
Kiramchi,	...	...	...	90	...	...	90
Indigo,	100	...	129	135	...	...	364
Betel-nuts,	337	179	6	148	817	59	1,546
Fuel and firewood,	5,890	2,182	1,050	...	100	1,325	10,547
Fruits, dried,	325	...	...	3	...	232	560
Fruits, fresh, and vegetables,	270	806	442	77	129	260	1,984
Wheat,	17,758	9,792	21,359	7,178	2,060	1,891	60,038
Pulses and gram,	29,976	19,299	22,134	11,484	17,781	20,504	121,178
Rice,	2,237	2,859	3,426	21,642	53,760	84,898	168,822
Paddy,	676	1,039	142	29	202	136	2,224
Other cereals,	718	1,733	7,031	5,089	1,582	2,919	19,072
Jute and other raw fibres,	239	164	1,371	4,363	4,378	2,794	13,309
Fibres, manufactures of,	401	142	96	196	2,120	1,660	4,615
Silk, raw,	320	115	56	...	88	6	585
Hides,	...	600	175	100	...	...	875
Iron and its manufactures,	34	22	200	...	29	62	347
Copper and brass,	116	61	9	137	95	5	423
Other metals,	116	31	3	...	26	...	176
Lime and limestone,	750	275	1,597	340	200	425	3,587
Stone,	...	...	...	...	250	...	250
Ghí,	78	...	82	15	...	2	177
Oil,	22	12	39	4	19	4	100
Linseed,	8,190	1,506	3,824	4,516	1,800	561	20,397
Til seed,	241	114	...	...	...	...	355
Mustard seed,	1,811	14,520	5,239	2,104	1,155	491	25,320
Castor-oil seed,	187	400	200	...	...	10	797
Poppy seed,	500	...	268	260	20	....	1,048
Surgujá-seed,	...	148	173	...	...	35	356
Salt,	3,281	3,529	2,350	2,293	1,752	2,031	15,236
Other saline substances,	1,246	42	401	10	12	428	2,139
Spices and condiments,	1,228	487	677	856	457	261	3,966
Sugar, refined,	629	210	31	150	80	64	1,164
Sugar, unrefined,	515	11	138	22	100	50	836
Tea,	12	...	...	...	...	...	12
Tobacco,	569	374	628	376	844	189	2,980
Miscellaneous,	...	...	100	77	564	1,250	1,991
Total,	87,305	71,522	75,595	61,959	90,957	122,822	510,160
Class II.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.
Goats and sheep,	180	...	250	...	...	...	430
Tortoises,	...	...	80	...	...	...	80
Timber,	59	...	137	12	...	51	259
Bamboos,	6,382	7,130	...	16	65	85	13,678
Cocoa-nuts,	11,400	125	2,200	6,270	1,200	...	21,195
Gunny-bags,	...	240	...	...	...	...	240
Hay and straw (bundles),	...	...	...	5,500	...	...	5,500
Bricks,	18,550	...	...	...	...	...	18,550
Miscellaneous,	1,975	16	1,300	...	...	...	3,291
Class III.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Cotton (European) manufrs.,	84,142	600	1,015	200	125	...	86,082
Cotton (Native) manufrs.,	...	...	600	...	...	...	600
Miscellaneous (Native) goods,	1,983	1,911	3,859	1,541	1,020	3,901	14,215
Total,	86,125	2,511	5,474	1,741	1,145	3,901	100,897

STATISTICS OF THE RIVER TRAFFIC OF MURSHIDABAD DISTRICT FOR THE SIX MONTHS ENDING FEBRUARY 1876. TABLE II. (IMPORTS.)

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	September.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.	Total.
CLASS I.	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*
Coal and coke,	1,515	20	1,925	3,960	18	30	7,468
Cotton,	1,227	532	349	463	2,971	2,798	8,340
Cotton, twist (European),	...	25	3	...	6	12	46
Chemicals and medicines,	115	32	130	...	...	16	293
Safflower,	7	5	...	...	...	...	12
Lac-dye,	109	...	14	10	19	5	157
Red-wood,	...	3	...	...	...	40	43
Red-earth,	...	...	...	...	...	50	50
Indigo,	...	...	148	...	263	...	411
Indigo seeds,	1,874	...	...	...	...	225	2,099
Betel-nuts,	715	...	166	1,022	74	368	2,345
Fuel and firewood,	4,970	1,410	260	...	117	...	6,757
Fruits, fresh, and vegetables,	180	250	2,374	4,538	4,444	4,692	16,478
Wheat,	5,114	2,407	299	1,499	339	50	9,708
Pulses and gram,	8,256	1,922	3,374	609	1,014	1,144	16,319
Rice,	5,890	3,876	629	311	698	379	11,783
Paddy,	5,851	4,676	837	538	1,962	4,910	18,774
Other cereals,	745	972	3	...	26	100	1,846
Jute and other raw fibres,	206	353	81	99	49	299	1,087
Fibres, manufactures of,	171	27	508	973	875	362	2,916
Silk, raw,	132	54	31	9	...	8	234
Iron and its manufactures,	450	22	217	104	444	757	1,994
Copper and brass,	10	117	4	22	25	327	505
Other metals,	85	30	3	18	11	...	147
Lime and limestone,	9,100	1,625	1,716	1,675	300	5,866	20,282
Stone,	1,325	...	700	2,250	1,460	1,453	7,188
Shell-lac,	...	...	750	...	...	...	750
Ghi,	633	933	379	508	622	355	3,430
Oil,	168	21	295	126	154	169	933
Linseed,	1,144	622	1,494	352	1,247	783	5,642
Til-seed,	...	...	8	...	...	195	203
Mustard seed,	17,038	17,344	11,123	9,896	8,946	7,160	71,507
Castor-oil seed,	...	...	10	110	...	...	120
Poppy seed,	699	233	710	90	258	...	1,990
Surgujá-seed,	...	70	125	...	...	35	230
Salt,	14,667	5,918	15,872	19,983	17,872	13,217	87,529
Other saline substances,	5,040	2,582	483	233	20	94	8,452
Spices and condiments,	957	83	517	246	1,166	565	3,534
Sugar, refined,	3,695	1,590	10,265	2,907	928	1,519	20,904
Sugar, unrefined,	9,377	4,601	5,629	8,530	6,110	8,169	42,416
Tobacco,	8,761	6,762	5,310	3,759	2,358	914	27,864
Liquor,	...	...	10	...	...	50	60
Miscellaneous,	1,127	522	1,983	3,327	4,478	2,930	14,367
Total,	111,353	59,639	68,734	68,167	59,274	60,046	427,213
CLASS II.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.
Timber,	61	182	760	880	90	117	2,090
Bamboos,	...	...	68	16	252	161	497
Cocoa-nuts,	165,350	10,575	15,550	2,000	...	...	193,475
Gunny-bags,	...	...	...	...	...	1,900	1,900
Bricks,	18,550	...	...	...	...	...	18,550
Miscellaneous,	1,975	1,559	5,050	...	4,000	...	12,584
CLASS III.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Leather,	...	...	...	12	...	...	12
Woollen manufactures,	...	...	...	400	...	...	400
Silk,	...	...	1,950	...	...	800	2,750
Cotton (European) manufrs.,	29,172	700	1,015	250	13,600	4,200	48,937
Cotton (Native) manufrs.,	2,000	400	...	1,073	...	1,350	4,823
Miscellaneous (Native) goods,	7,608	1,350	2,564	2,776	79,846	2,671	96,815
Miscellaneous (Europ.) goods,	...	...	...	...	...	750	750
Total,	38,780	2,450	5,529	4,511	93,446	9,771	154,487

Sentence continued from page 162.]
and 'other' cereals, aggregated 369,110 *maunds*, or 13,512 tons, being 72 per cent. of the total exports; while the importation of the same four classes of food-grains was only 39,656 *maunds*, or 1451 tons, which is but 9 per cent. of the total imports. On the other hand, it is noteworthy that, in the single case of paddy or unhusked rice, the imports exceed the exports by about eightfold. The export of various sorts of oil-seeds reached 48,273 *maunds*, or 1767 tons, almost equally shared between linseed and mustard-seed; the import was 78,692 *maunds*, or 2880 tons, and was nearly altogether confined to mustard. The export of salt was 15,236 *maunds*, or 557 tons; while the import was as much as 87,529 *maunds*, or 3204 tons, leaving apparently 72,293 *maunds* or 2647 tons for local consumption. To this balance there falls to be added the importation of salt into the west of the District by rail; and it is known that this is considerable. Coal and coke was exported to the large amount of 19,813 *maunds* or 725 tons, against 7468 *maunds* or 273 tons imported.

Under Class II. (articles registered by number only) there is nothing to call for comment beyond the large number (165,350) of cocoa-nuts imported in the month of September. The circumstance that the figures are identical in the two tables both for 'bricks' and 'miscellaneous,' in that month, proves that these entries are not exports and imports proper, but merely a registration at Jangipur of articles passing from one part of the District. How far this element of confusion may have swelled other entries in the two tables, it is not possible to discover; but it does not appear probable that the great totals have been very materially affected.

Class III. (articles registered by value only) shows exports during the six months worth £10,089, 14s. od., against imports worth £15,448, 14s. od., giving an apparent excess of imports amounting to £5359, or nearly one-third. To this, again, there should be added the imports of European piece-goods by rail. But the returns in this class are especially misleading, unless extended over a much longer period than six months, as they are liable to be entirely altered by the accident of a few valuable cargoes, or the occurrence of some frequented fair. For example, in the one month of September 1875, the exports of European cotton manufactures were valued at £8414, 4s. od., or no less than 83 per cent. of the total exports in Class III. for the six months; while in

January 1876 the imports of miscellaneous native goods reached £7984, 12s. od., or 51 per cent. of the total imports for the half-year.

With regard to the destination of the exports and the origin of the imports, it is impossible to obtain accurate information; but approximate results may be gained by analysing the returns at the several registration stations. In the first place, as the station at Jangipur on the Bhágirathí lies within the boundaries of the District, it is evident that there arises from this cause a certain amount of double-registration, as has already been shown in the case of Class II. A boat passing Jangipur with a cargo taken on board at a mart within the District, and destined to be unloaded at a second mart also within the District, would of necessity be registered twice; and the weight, etc. of the cargo would be twice entered, once as an import and again as an export. It might also happen that this very same cargo, on transhipment into another boat, would be a third time entered at some registration station beyond the District, as an export from Murshidábád. There is, however, good reason to suppose that, in the present case, the amount of double-registration thus produced is not of any considerable extent, and that, in the gross, it may be safely disregarded. But in another way the returns at Jangipur give rise to a difficulty which it is not possible to remove. These returns, as might be expected, contribute largely to constitute the totals given in both tables; but no means is afforded for ascertaining the direction in which the boats passed the station. In other words, it is impossible to discover whether an export from Murshidábád registered at Jangipur was destined for Calcutta or for Behar; and the same with the imports. The Jangipur returns, therefore, must be put altogether on one side, as affording no useful materials. We are left, then, with the registration stations beyond the limits of the District; and from these we can draw conclusions of a certain value. It is clear that the whole of the import trade, and the larger portion of the export trade, which Murshidábád District carries on with Calcutta, will be registered at the stations of Nadiyá and Húglí; while almost the whole of the imports from up-country, and a considerable portion of the exports in that direction, will be registered at Sáhibganj, Patná, and Daraulí. Now the total in Class I. of the exports from Murshidábád, registered in Nadiyá and Húglí, amounted during the six months to 197,323 *maunds*, or 7223 tons, being 38 per cent. of the total exports;

while the exports registered at Sáhibganj, Patná, and Daraulí were only 65,171 *maunds*, or 2386 tons, *i.e.* about 13 per cent. Of the imports, 110,100 *maunds*, or 4030 tons, being about one-quarter, were registered at the two stations in the south; and 219,208 *maunds*, or 8025 tons, being about one-half, were registered at the three stations higher up the Ganges. The remainder, in each case, was chiefly registered at Jangipur.

The Statistical Reporter furnishes detailed information for certain staple articles of trade, during the last four months of the half-year, from November 1875 to February 1876 inclusive. The exports of jute in that period came almost entirely from the city of Murshidábád, which sent 10,130 *maunds*, or 370 tons, no less than five-sixths of the whole. The rice traffic naturally divides into the large trade with Behar, and the smaller business with Calcutta. Neither of these rose into importance until December; but the Behar trade rapidly and progressively increased during the two following months. The total of the rice exports to Behar and the North-West during the three months, December to February, aggregated 118,425 *maunds*, or 4336 tons, of which Jangipur sent 64 per cent., and Dhulián 29 per cent. The total sent to Calcutta during the same three months was 42,781 *maunds*, or 1566 tons, of which Murshidábád city sent 36 per cent., and Jangipur 29 per cent. The rice-exporting marts of the District may be arranged in the following order, together with the totals which they despatched in both directions:—Jangipur, 90,081; Dhulián, 38,008; Murshidábád, 15,239; Nutanganj, 8787; Báluchar, 209; Jiáganj, 140. During February, the District of Murshidábád despatched into Behar alone 68,558 *maunds*, or 2509 tons, of food-grains of various sorts, which was 65 per cent. of the entire amount sent into that Province from all the Districts of Bengal. This total was made up of rice, 63,543 *maunds;* pulses and gram, 3139; 'other' cereals, 1813; paddy, 63. In the two months, November and December, the total of the exports of wheat from Murshidábád amounted to 28,537 *maunds*, or 1044 tons, of which Dhulián contributed 15,599 *maunds*, and Murshidábád city 7385; the destination of these exports is not recorded, but it was probably Calcutta. In December, the exports of pulses and gram amounted to 11,484 *maunds*, or 420 tons, chiefly derived from the following marts:—Murshidábád, 3045; Tiákátá, 2544; Dhulián, 1692; Jiáganj, 1140; Jangipur, 1080. The importation of European cotton manufactures into Murshidábád is comparatively insig-

nificant. The following were the chief importing marts during the four months :—Chak Islámpur, with the value of £780; Murshidábád, £570; Dhulián, £220; Jangipur, £20.

Railway Traffic Returns.—The East Indian Railway Company has furnished returns, showing in detail the destination of the salt and of the European piece-goods exported from Howrah. During the two months, January and February 1876, Murshidábád District received by rail 6826 *maunds* or 249 tons of salt, at the following stations :—Rámpur Hát, 3095 *maunds;* Nalhátí, 2089; Azímganj, 1642. The total weight of piece-goods imported by rail during the same period was 2580 *maunds,* or 94 tons, at the following stations : Azímganj, 2326 *maunds;* Rámpur Hát, 148; Nalhátí, 106. The figures for Murárai are given in the Statistical Account of the Santál Parganás.

Balance of Trade.—It has already been stated that there is every indication of growing wealth displayed by the Jain merchants of Murshidábád; but, despite this circumstance, the Collector is of opinion that the balance of trade generally is not in favour of the District, or, at least, that no accumulation of coin is going on. In support of this opinion, he instances the exorbitant rates of interest which are habitually demanded and paid, and which will be presently given in detail. On the other hand, he acknowledges that very large sums of money are annually distributed in the District, in connection with the manufacture of silk and indigo; and that this money is introduced from without by European capital. He is of opinion that much of the coin thus received is converted into bullion, and ultimately takes the shape of jewellery and other articles of luxury.

In connection with this subject, the Collector mentions the curious circumstance that the price of bullion, both gold and silver, is uniformly higher at Murshidábád than at Calcutta; but he adds the warning that it would be rash to draw any definite conclusion from this single fact. The value of gold at Murshidábád, as estimated by the silver standard, is above the value at Calcutta in the proportion of 32 to 31, Rs. 16 being generally given for every *tolá* weight of gold; that is, for the value in Calcutta of Rs. 15. 8. 0. This premium is far higher than would suffice to cover the cost and risk of transit. Silver bullion, again, is dearer than at Calcutta, as expressed in terms of the silver currency. In Calcutta the *tolá* of pure silver is worth Rs. 1. 1. 0; in Murshidábád its value is Rs. 1. 1. 6,

or a difference of 6 *pies* against the latter place. The proportion, in other terms, is 34 to 32 at Calcutta, and 35 to 32 at Murshidábád.

CAPITAL.—Whatever may be the general inclination in the balance of the local trade, there can be no doubt, in the Collector's judgment, that large accumulations of wealth are taking place in the hands of individuals, a state of things which may be compensated for by a flow of coin out of the District from the hands of the consuming public. It is certain that the wholesale trade in transhipped commodities, which is managed from Azímganj, must result in safe profits to the rich merchants and bankers. The profits of trade, manufacture, and agriculture are not as a rule hoarded, but either employed in usury or in augmenting the business, or sunk in the purchase of jewellery and other ornaments. Hoarding, no doubt, does go on to a certain extent, as in every other part of Bengal.

RATES OF INTEREST.—The current rates of interest in the District are thus returned by the Collector. In the case of small transactions, where the borrower pledges some article of value, the rate of interest charged is ordinarily 3 *pies* per rupee per *mensem*, or 18¾ per cent. per annum; if the articles pledged are brass utensils or iron tools, the rate may be double of the preceding, viz. 6 *pies* per rupee per *mensem*, or 37½ per cent. per annum. In large transactions, where a mortgage is given on moveable property, the rate of interest varies from 15 to 30 per cent. per annum. In illustration of this subject, the Collector states that the money market of the District is ruled by the rates prevailing in the Lálbágh Subdivision, which contains the city of Murshidábád. It was found that the rate of interest on seven loans of this sort registered there during the year 1870 gave an average of precisely 25½ per cent. per annum. In the case of large transactions, where a mortgage is given on houses or lands, the average of five cases registered in the Lálbágh Subdivision was ascertained to be about 32 per cent. per annum. In ordinary unregistered loans of this class, the money is often advanced at a lower rate; and it may be said that the common rates in such cases vary from 18 to 32 per cent. In petty agricultural advances to the cultivators, upon the personal security only of the borrower, it is customary to take as interest 50 per cent. per annum. A system locally known as *desí* prevails extensively in the District, in accordance with which a sort of quasi-lien upon the crops is supposed to be given. This additional right of the creditor rests merely upon the force of custom. No lien is expressly stipulated for in the con-

tract, and it is doubtful how far it would be recognised by the English law; but these cases rarely or never come into the courts. The essential feature of the *desí* system is the term fixed for the repayment of the loan, which is always harvest-time. Advances of grain are made by the *mahájans*, or stock-holders, to the cultivators, whether for seed or consumption, on condition that the principal shall be repaid in kind, when the next crop is gathered, together with the addition of one-half by way of interest, or 50 per cent. Sometimes, but not often, the charge on account of interest is as much as the original principal, or at the rate of 100 per cent., in which case the loan is called *duní*. In the purchase of a landed estate, 8 to 12 per cent. would be considered a fair return upon the money invested.

BANKS, ETC.—There are several large banking establishments at Azímganj, Báluchar, Jangipur, and Barhampur; and to these recourse is had in the case of large monetary transactions. In the rural parts of the District, the advances are chiefly made by the *mahájans*, who are not usually shopkeepers, but themselves cultivators on a large scale, and able to speculate with the surplus produce of their own fields. Moneyed men also conduct such transactions by means of grain purchased for the purpose.

IMPORTED CAPITAL.—The manufacture of indigo is almost solely carried on with European capital, and under European supervision. The manufacture of silk is also conducted to a great extent by Europeans, who own all the larger concerns; while the more numerous class of small filatures are owned by natives. It has already been stated that the value of silk annually exported from the District may be vaguely put at £171,000, and the value of the indigo at £70,000. This total of £241,000 may fairly be credited to the account of European capital; but apart from the inferences to be derived from these figures, I have no means of estimating its total amount, the returns which it receives, or the quantity of employment which it gives.

INSTITUTIONS.—The list of institutions in the District comprises charitable, educational, religious, and literary establishments. The dispensaries, lunatic asylums, and the schools will be described in greater detail in subsequent sections of this Account; but they may be mentioned in this place, in order to give a complete view of the institutions in the District.

Establishments for the relief of the poor are (1) charitable dis-

pensaries; (2) lunatic asylums; (3) *atithisálás*, or alms-houses; and (4) charitable societies. The dispensaries are five in number,—at Barhampur, Murshidábád city, Azímganj, Jangipur, and Jamuá-Kándí. A sixth dispensary was opened at Lálgolá, at the close of 1872. The building at Murshidábád is the property of the Nawáb Názím, and is kept in repair at the expense of the Nizámat funds. The building at Azímganj was provided by Rái Dhanpat Sinh Bahádur, and is still popularly called by his name, on account of his liberal contributions towards its support. The three remaining dispensaries are chiefly maintained by local subscriptions, supplemented by aid from Government in the form of salaries to the medical officers, and European medicines and surgical instruments. The old lunatic asylum was at Máidapur. This institution is still maintained; but a new and larger asylum was opened at Barhampur towards the close of the year 1874. There are three *atithisálás*, or alms-houses, in the District; one at Barhampur, founded by the Sen family of that town; another at Báluchar, founded by Rái Lakshmipat Sinh Bahádur; and the third at Jangipur, supported by the proceeds of certain *debottar mahals*, which are estimated to yield about Rs. 15,000 or £1500 per annum. There is a charitable society at Barhampur.

Establishments for the instruction of youth include, amongst others, the following:—The college at Barhampur; the Nizámat college and the Nizámat school, two separate institutions in the city of Murshidábád, supported out of the Nizámat funds; three missionary schools at Barhampur, of which one is an Anglo-vernacular school, founded in 1844, which teaches up to the university entrance examination course; another is a girls' school, known as the Khálási *bázár* school, at which no fees are charged; and the third is an asylum, where a few Christian boys and girls are maintained and taught. There is an English school at Báluchar, supported by Rái Lakshmipat Sinh Bahádur, and another at Nasípur. There are several aided schools scattered through the District, of which two are girls' schools, situated at Barhampur and Lálbágh. Of the middle vernacular schools, the best are those at Saidábád, Barhampur, and Jangipur. To the first-named of these, a Government model school, the Maháraní Swarnamayi attached in 1871 a second *pandit*, on the salary of Rs. 15 a month.

Of religious societies, founded with a view to the furtherance of special forms of faith, the most important is the Barhampur Bráhma

Samáj, which has been described on a previous page. There is also an *ákrá*, or congregation of Vaishnav followers of Chaitanya, at Kunja-ghát in Barhampur.

There are no political societies in the District. The literary institutions are two; one at Barhampur, which is frequented by the native educated residents, chiefly Government officials and pleaders, and by a few Europeans. It meets monthly, when literary, social, and scientific subjects are discussed. There is another literary society of a similar kind at Jangipur.

NEWSPAPERS.—There is at present only one newspaper published in the District, the *Bhárát Ranján*, printed in Bengalí. It confines itself mainly to the discussion of topics of local and municipal interest, and is old-fashioned and conservative in its tendencies. The number of the subscribers is about 150. A second vernacular newspaper, the *Madhu-kurí*, used to represent the more advanced school of opinion, but it has recently (1871) ceased to appear for want of support. Mr. Long, in his essay on 'The Banks of the Bhágirathí,' has the following passage:—'In 1838, an English newspaper was started, called *The Murshidábád News*. At first it met with a good circulation, and the Court of Directors subscribed for 10 copies; but afterwards it became scurrilous and indulged in personal abuse, and ceased to exist within the year.'

THE PRINTING PRESSES of the District are two, both at Barhampur. The Dhán-Sindhu possesses a supply of English and Devánágárí type, but usually prints only in the Bengalí character. The second press, the Satyá-ratná, prints in Bengalí only.

INCOMES AND INCOME TAX.—The Collector in 1870 returned the estimated total of all the incomes in Murshidábád District, above £50, at £320,000. The net amount of income tax realized in 1870-71 was £12,174. The tax for that year was at the rate of $3\frac{1}{8}$ per cent., from which it may be calculated that the actual income of the District was £389,568. In the following year, 1871-72, the rate of the income tax was reduced by one-half, to $1\frac{1}{24}$ per cent., and the minimum of incomes liable to assessment raised to £75 per annum. The net amount realized in that year was £3470. In comparison with these figures, it may be mentioned that in 1860-61, the first year in which the income tax was levied, being at the rate of 4 per cent., the net amount realized was £21,472.

HISTORY OF THE DIWANI OF MURSHIDABAD.—It has already been mentioned that the District of Murshidábád contains two old

ruined cities, Badrihát and Rángámátí, which carry the imagination back into the pre-historic period when Buddhist kings and independent Hindu rájás ruled in Bengal. But the history proper of Murshidábád dates only from the time when Murshid Kulí Khán removed the seat of Government to Maksudábád from Dacca. Its history closes with the battle of Plassey in 1757, leaving a brief period of little more than half a century, during which it was the metropolitan District of Bengal. The English, indeed, attempted for several years later to govern the country through the Muhammadan officials at Murshidábád, and all the various offices of the administration were not finally transferred to Calcutta until 1790. But, as a matter of fact, Calcutta had become the real capital of Bengal at a much earlier date. Siráj-ud-Daulá was the last of the independent Nawábs Názim, and his name terminates the history of the Díwání of Murshidábád. To relate that history at length would be beyond the limits of this Account; but it may not be considered out of place to give a biographical sketch of the several Nawábs, together with allusions to matters of general history, in illustration of the circumstances which led to the overthrow of the Muhammadan power in Bengal, and the growth of the English sovereignty. The origin of the city of Murshidábád has already been given on an earlier page.

(1) MURSHID KULI KHAN, not less well known as Jafar Khán, was by birth a Hindu, being the son of a poor Bráhman. When a youth he had been taken as a slave to Persia, and there brought up in the Muhammadan faith. For the remainder of his life he continued a staunch adherent to his new creed, and on that account, apart from his severities as a tax-gatherer, his name is still abhorred by all orthodox Hindus. At different times of his life he seems to have been known by different names. The name he received from his master, on his initiation into the religion of Islám, was Muhammad Hádí. In English books he is often called Jaffier Khán. From the Emperor Aurangzeb, at the time when he founded Murshidábád, he received the following lofty titles:—Nawáb Murshid Kulí, Mútamin-ul-Mulk, Alá-ud-Daulá, Jafar Khán Násiri, Násir Jang (the viceroy, the priest-slave, the administrator of the country, the lofty one of the empire, Lord Jafar Násari, the victorious in war). Together with these appellatives, he was appointed Díwán and Deputy Názim of Orissa and Bengal. He forthwith erected a palace and other offices of Government at his new capital, and

established there an imperial mint, from which purport to come most of the Sháh Alám gold *mohurs* now to be found in the *bázárs*. The profits of the Murshidábád mint are stated in the rent-roll of 1728 to amount to Rs. 304,103.[1] We find that in 1706 the English at Kásimbázár were induced to pay him Rs. 25,000 for the convenience of having the bullion, which they imported from Europe, coined into rupees at the Murshidábád mint. One of the chief articles in the petition presented by the English embassy at the Court of Dehli in 1716 was, 'that the officers of the mint at Murshidábád should at all times, when required, allow three days in the week for the coinage of the English Company's money.' It was not till nearly half a century afterwards, in 1757, as one of the results of the battle of Plassey, that the English first struck coins of their own, but still in the name of the Emperor of Hindustán. In December 1758, the Council at Calcutta complained, in a letter to the Court, that their mint was of but little use to them, partly because no bullion was arriving from Europe, but more especially because the command of specie possessed by the Seths of Murshidábád was used to force down the exchange value of their *sikkás*. In November 1760, on the occasion of the accession of Mír Kásim, a *parwaná* was received from the Nawáb, awarding full privileges to the Calcutta mint. From this date the mint of Murshidábád began to decline, and, indeed, was soon abolished. The MS. Records of the Board of Revenue show that in 1785 it was proposed to 're-establish the mint of Murshidábád.' This proposal was apparently carried out, though only for a short time. In 1796 all provincial mints were abolished, but some respite seems to have been granted to that at Murshidábád. It was not till 1799 that 'the Collector of Murshidábád despatched the mint utensils to the Presidency, and disposed of the buildings used as the mint office by public auction.'

Murshid Kulí Khán ruled at Murshidábád in almost undisturbed quiet from 1704 till his death in 1725. This period falls within the reigns of three Emperors, from each of whom he had to obtain the confirmation of his rank and power. In 1713 he received from Prince Farrukh-Siyyar, who had then established himself on the throne at Dehli, the united offices of Názím and Díwán (the former office he had hitherto only held as deputy). In 1718 he obtained from the same emperor the patents which he had

[1] Professor Blochmann, in *Asiatic Society's Journal*, Part I. No. 2, p. 90.

long solicited, conferring upon him the government of Behar in addition to the offices he already possessed. This threw into his hands greater power than had ever been entrusted to any Subahdár since the introduction of the Emperor Akbar's regulation. Nor was the Nawáb unworthy of his high position. He raised the standard of administration to a higher pitch than has ever been attained in Bengal under a native government, and he extended the Muhammadan influence among neighbouring states and tribes. The following passages, illustrating the efficiency of his rule, are taken from a native chronicler, as quoted in Stewart's *History of Bengal*:—'He always provided against famine, and severely prohibited all monopolies of grain. If the importation of grain to the cities and towns fell short of what had been usual, he sent officers into the country, who broke open the hoards of individuals, and compelled them to carry their grain to the public markets. Rice was then commonly sold in Murshidábád at 4 *maunds* for a rupee (or about a hundredweight and a half for one shilling), and the prices of other provisions were in proportion. He also strictly prohibited the exportation of grain. The *faujdár* of Húglí had express orders to see that no ship, whether European or other, carried away more grain than was sufficient for the victualling of the crew during the intended voyage; neither were any (foreign) merchants allowed to have stores of grain.' . . . 'The Nawáb was indefatigable in the extirpation of robbers, and erected guard-houses at Kátwá and Murshidganj. Whenever a robbery was committed, he compelled the *faujdár* or the *zamíndár* either to find out the thief or to recover the property. The goods, or their equivalent in money, were always restored to the person who had been robbed; and the thief, whenever caught, was impaled alive. By these severe means, travellers were protected on the roads, and every man slept securely in his own house.' . . . 'He devoted two days in the week to the administration of justice, presiding in court in his own person. So impartial was he in his decisions, and so rigid in the execution of the sentence of the law, that he put his own son to death for an infraction of its regulations.' In the collection of the revenues his severity was still more to be dreaded. 'In order to make a full investigation of the value of the lands, he placed the principal *zamíndárs* in close confinement, and gave the collection into the hands of expert *ámils* or collectors, who received the assessments from the farmers, and paid the amount into the public treasury. He also ordered the whole of the lands

to be re-measured. Having thus ascertained the quantity of fallow land belonging to every village, he caused a considerable proportion of it to be brought into cultivation. For this purpose the collectors were authorized to make advances of money to the lower orders of husbandmen. To the dispossessed *zamíndárs* he assigned an allowance for the subsistence of themselves and their families, called *nankar*, payable either in land or money; to which were added *bankar* and *jalkar*, which comprise the privileges of hunting, cutting wood in the forests, and fishing. The only persons exempted from these despotic regulations were the *zamíndárs* of Bírbhúm and Bishnupur, who retained their old character of feudatory chiefs.' Many stories of the exquisite devices of cruelty which he adopted to extract arrears from *zamíndárs* in default are to this day current in Bengal. By these various means he raised the imperial revenues to one *kror* and fifty *lákhs* of rupees, or more than £1,500,000 sterling. Apart from the enormous sums which were retained for his own private fisc, and in the coffers of Jagat Seth at Murshidábád, the above amount was annually transmitted to Dehlí, the greater part in specie, usually in the beginning of Baisakh, the second month of the year. 'The boxes of treasure were laden upon 200 or more carts drawn by bullocks, and escorted by 300 cavalry and 500 infantry, accompanied by one of the sub-treasurers. Together with the revenue, he sent presents to the Emperor and his ministers—elephants, hill-horses, antelopes, hawks, shields made of rhinoceros-hide, sword-blades, Sylhet mats, filagree-work of gold and silver, wrought ivory, Dacca muslins and Kásimbázár silks, also a number of European articles procured at the royal port of Húglí.' 'He admitted no charges for troops, except for those paid and mustered by himself. Two thousand cavalry and four thousand infantry were found sufficient to enforce the payment of all the revenues of Bengal.' With this small force, which hardly deserves the name of army, and was not raised primarily for military purposes, Murshid Kulí Khán maintained order in Bengal during a period of twenty years. On more than one occasion he had to contend against rebels in the field; but he was not ambitious of distinction in arms, and did not attempt to extend the boundaries of his government. During his time the independent Rájás of Tipperah, Kuch Behar, and Assam, whose countries had been overrun but never subdued by the Muhammadans, sent presents of submission to Murshidábád, and acknowledged the

nominal superiority of the Nawáb. He always treated the Hindus with bigoted cruelty, according to the usual intolerance of renegades towards the members of their former faith. His preparations for his tomb afford an unpleasing example of his conduct in this respect. 'The Nawáb, being now advanced in years, and finding his health decline very fast, gave orders for building his tomb with a mosque, and a *khetareh*, or square with shops. The spot selected was in the Khás Táluk, on the east side of the city. All the Hindu temples in the neighbourhood were pulled down, and their materials used for raising the new work. The *zamíndárs* and other Hindus would have preserved their temples at any price, but no entreaties or bribes could prevail; not one was left standing in Murshidábád, or within the distance of four miles' journey from the city. In the remote villages the houses of the Hindus were threatened with destruction, upon pretence of their being dedicated to religious uses, and were only redeemed on payment of large sums of money. The servants of Hindus of all ranks were compelled to work on the new structure, unless their masters paid for their release. By these means the buildings were completed in the course of a year, and a *ganj* (or market-place where dues were collected) was annexed to the *khetareh*, in order that out of the dues the whole might be maintained in repair.'

The preceding paragraphs are mainly quoted from native authorities, as given in Stewart's *History of Bengal* (ed. 1847), from which also is extracted the major portion of the whole of this historical sketch, verified wherever possible by reference to other authorities. The results of Murshid Kulí Khán's financial reforms are thus summarized by Professor Blochmann, who remarks that they are of especial importance, because the Settlement they embody continued without substantial modification until the acquisition of the Díwání by the East India Company, and forms the basis of Grant's well-known *Analysis of the Bengal Finances*:—'The financial reforms consisted chiefly in the abolition of the Bengal contingent of household troops (3000 horse), and in a *hastabud* investigation, set on foot throughout the interior Districts, and chiefly in Sátgáon, for the purpose of ascertaining or equalizing the established proportional assessment, which caused a perpetual increase to the old rent-roll. These reforms were embodied in the Jamá-i-Kámil Tumár, or perfect rent-roll. According to it, Bengal was, from 1722, or thirty-five years prior to the British conquest, newly arranged in thirteen *chaklahs*,

or large divisions of territory; which comprised, by smaller subdivisions of old *mahals*, the number of 1660 *parganás*, and paid a revenue now fixed at Rs. 14,288,186. Two of the *chaklahs* were annexations from Orissa, viz. Bandar Balasor, and Hijili; five lay west of the Ganges, viz. Sátgáon, Bardwán, Murshidábád, Jessor, and Bhúshná; and six lay north and east of the Ganges, viz. Akbarnagar, Gorághát, Karaibári, Jahángírnagar, Sylhet, and Islámábád. The *faujdáris*, or magisterial jurisdictions, coincided in area with the revenue *chaklahs*. To the above rental further sums were added, arising from taxes called *abwáb*, levied over and above the *Asl-i-Jamá*. Under Murshid Kulí Khán, the *abwáb* carried to the account amounted only to little more than 2½ *lákhs*; but he collected much more, which did not appear in the imperial accounts.'

Murshid Kulí Khán endeavoured in every way to establish his own family firmly in Bengal. His son-in-law, Shujá-ud-Daulá, was appointed Deputy Názim of Orissa, and the same office in Dacca was conferred on the husband of his granddaughter. He marked out as his heir and successor in the Government his grandson, the son of Shujá-ud-Daulá, and procured for him the title of Sarfaráz Khán. To secure some provision for his family in any case, he took the precaution of purchasing the *zamíndári* of the city of Murshidábád from the *tálukdár* of Chunákháli, and had the transfer registered in the books of the *kánungos* and of the *khálsá*. He also changed the name of the *zamíndári* to Asadnagar, but this new title soon died out. He died in 1725, but the succession did not follow his last will.

(2) SHUJA-UD-DAULA, or Shujá-ud-Dín Khán, as he is sometimes called, had managed, through intrigues at the Dehli Court, to secure the vacant office for himself. His family were originally Turkomans, from Khorasán, in the east of Persia. He was himself born in the Dakhin, where he had early contracted an intimacy with Murshid Kulí Khán, who was at that time Díwán of Haidarábád. He had married the only daughter of the late Nawáb, and was the father of Sarfaráz Khán, whom he supplanted in the succession. The Muhammadan chroniclers are profuse in their praises of the government of Shujá-ud-Daulá. His collection of the revenues was not less exact than that of his predecessor, while he was free from the reproach of cruelty and religious bigotry. He is said to have 'commenced his rule by releasing the unhappy *zamíndárs* from the rigorous confinement in which they had long been languishing, and

by permitting them to resume the management of their estates, upon giving security for good conduct.' Despite this leniency there was no falling off in the revenues. 'For the year 1728, one *kror* and forty-eight *lákhs* of rupees (£1,480,000) were remitted to Dehli by the agents of the imperial banker, Jagat Seth, without any difficulty or oppression.' It is the assessment of this year which is explained in detail in Grant's *Analysis of the Finances of Bengal* (Madras reprint, 1866, pp. 277-280). It is there stated that Shujá-ud-Daulá raised the taxes levied under the name of *abwáb* to Rs. 2,172,952, or more than one-fifth of the original revenue. During his rule, the province of Tipperah, which had from time immemorial been an independent kingdom, was annexed to the Mughul empire. Dinájpur and Kuch Behar were also invaded, and the Rájás of those countries were plundered of their ancient treasures. 'He was convinced that the very reduced military establishment kept up by Murshid Kulí Khán was inadequate to the security of the country, and raised the army to 25,000 men, of whom half were cavalry, and half infantry armed with matchlocks.' His most trusted advisers were the two brothers Hájí Ahmád and Alí Vardí Khán, who were by marriage near relations of his own, and Jagat Seth. He was very liberal to his servants, and paid great attentions to men of learning and piety; he was also very charitable. His justice has become proverbial. His first judicial act was to order an investigation into the conduct of the two most oppressive instruments of his predecessor's extortion, and to condemn them both to death. He was addicted to pleasure and luxury. The quiet that endured during his rule, and the accumulated treasures that he inherited from his father-in-law, supplied him with the opportunity and the means to embellish the city of Murshidábád. The palace of Murshid Kulí Khán was judged to be too confined and ill-contrived. It was pulled down, and another erected more suitable to his ideas of grandeur and comfort. 'His favourite residence was at Dehpárá, on the right bank of the Bhágirathí, just opposite Murshidábád. Here he completed a superb mosque, which had been commenced by one of the agents of oppression of his predecessor. It stood in the midst of a garden of great beauty. To this place he gave the name of Farah Bágh, or the Garden of Beauty, and thither he retired in the summer with his seraglio. Here also he was buried, within a mausoleum erected by himself. He died in 1739, after a peaceful rule of fourteen years.

(3) SARFARAZ KHAN had conducted the management of affairs during the last few years of his father's life, and succeeded to the Subah of Bengal without any disturbance. This, however, was the time of commotions and rebellions at Dehli, and it does not appear that Sarfaráz Khán ever received the proper confirmation in his office from the Mughul Emperor. His father, when on his death-bed, had bound him to follow the advice of his own councillors, Hájí Ahmad and Jagat Seth; but the weakness of his character soon turned both these powerful personages into enemies. Alí Vardí Khán, the younger brother of the Hájí, was at this time residing at Patná, as Deputy-Governor of Behar. He took the lead in the conspiracy against the Nawáb, and gradually gathered round him a strong body of Afghán troops. Agents were despatched to Dehli to bribe the ministers of the Emperor to support the conspirators. In the beginning of the year 1740, Alí Vardí Khán found himself strong enough to revolt openly, and to march southwards to Bengal. After some treacherous negotiations, a battle was fought at Gheriá, near the Ganges, about 22 miles north of the city of Murshidábád. The event of the battle was quickly decided by the death of Sarfaráz Khán, who was killed by a musket ball while fighting bravely from an elephant.

(4) ALI VARDI KHAN, the last of the great Nawábs of Bengal, whose name in full was Hassám-ul-Daulá Alí Vardí Khán Mahábát Jang, immediately took possession of the *masnad* of state. Out of the accumulations which he found in the treasury, he sent large presents to the Emperor and his courtiers, and was forthwith confirmed in the government of the three Provinces. It appears, however, that he never remitted the revenues to Dehli, for soon after this date the Mughul dynasty lost all semblance of real power. He ruled at Murshidábád for 16 years, during a most troubled period of Bengal history. The commencement of his reign was disturbed by outbreaks in Orissa. These were no sooner quelled than the Marhattás began their annual invasions, ravaging the entire country to the west of the Bhágirathí, and repeatedly penetrating to the suburbs of the city of Murshidábád. Throughout all this time, the European settlements on the Húglí were growing in power, and formed a continual source of anxiety. Alí Vardí Khán showed a bold front to all these surrounding dangers, and was equally conspicuous for his energy in the field and for the excellence of his civil administration. His first concern was to expel from Orissa the partizans of the late

Nawáb. This was effected without much difficulty, but this remote province was always a centre of disaffection during his entire reign. In 1741 he was twice called away in person to take the field in Orissa; and on the second occasion, as he was returning in triumph to Murshidábád, he was surprised near Bardwán by the Marhattás. This is the first occasion on which these mounted marauders appeared in Bengal. The present body of invaders consisted of 40,000 cavalry, and were sent by the Marhattá chief of Berar, to enforce his claim to the *chauth* or one-fourth part of the revenues. The small force that attended the Nawáb was utterly unable to cope with this army. It lost all its baggage, and through want of food was put to the greatest distress. After a three days' running fight, Kátwá was reached, where Alí Vardí Khán was rendered secure from further attack, owing to his command of the water communication. During the rainy season of 1741-42 the Marhattás remained in the neighbourhood, plundering far and wide; but they never dared to cross the Bhágirathí in any considerable numbers. On one occasion, instigated by a renegade called Mír Habib, who had been an influential minister under former Nawábs, they made an attempt upon the city of Murshidábád, which was unfortified. They plundered the suburbs, and are said to have obtained a booty of 3 *lákhs* of rupees from the bank of Jagat Seth. The inhabitants, for the most part, moved with their families and effects across the Ganges; and the Nawáb also despatched his treasures beyond that river to Godágárí. This was the time when the English obtained permission to fortify their territory. An entrenchment was dug at Calcutta, since known as the Marhattá Ditch; and the factory at Kásimbázár was surrounded with a brick wall and bastions. In October 1742, Alí Vardí Khán crossed the Bhágirathí by a bridge of boats and attacked the Marhattás, who were encamped at Kátwá. He is said to have defeated them here, and a second time before the close of the year at Midnapur. In 1743 the Marhattás returned; but on this occasion they came in two separate armies, one from Berar and the other from Puná. Alí Vardí Khán avoided the battle by playing off the one chief against the other. He lost no men in the field, but he paid an enormous sum to his Puná ally, and the unhappy villagers were plundered indiscriminately by both of the Marhattá armies. In the following year, 1744, the Berar Marhattás again arrived, demanding a heavy contribution, such as their Puná brethren had received. The Nawáb took

advantage of their avarice, invited the leaders to a personal conference, and there caused them to be massacred. The Marhattá army was then attacked and defeated. The memory of this exploit preserved Bengal for two years from the foreign invader; but an internal revolt now occupied the interval. Mustafá Khán was the most distinguished general of the Nawáb's army, and was also his principal councillor. On account of some fancied slight, he broke out in rebellion, and led off into Behar some of the Afghán soldiery. He was before long defeated and killed, but he had managed to draw the Marhattás into an alliance with himself. From this date until 1751, Alí Vardí Khán was continually pressed both by the Marhattás and the Afgháns, as well as by rebellions of his own generals and nearest relatives. Behar and Orissa were the two most unruly provinces, but it would be tedious to describe the many revolts, battles, and massacres of which they were the scene. Bengal seems always to have remained tranquil and loyal to the Nawáb. It is recorded that the *zamíndárs* on one occasion, during the Marhattá wars, advanced to him a *kror* and a half of rupees, or one million and a half sterling. In 1750, Alí Vardí Khán encountered the unkindest blow of all. His grandson, Siráj-ud-Daulá, whom he had always treated with lavish kindness, and whom he had from the first nominated as his successor, headed a rebellion against him. The revolt was never formidable, and was promptly put down by the Governor of Patná. Alí Vardí Khán was at this time afflicted with a fever. Old age also was coming upon him, and at last he permitted himself to grant permanent concessions to the Marhattás, against whom he had always hitherto defended his territory with varying success. In 1751 he ceded to them the Province of Orissa, and, in addition, agreed to pay them annually 12 *lákhs* of rupees, or £120,000, as the *chauth* of Bengal. The five years from this date till his death in 1756 formed the only quiet period of his reign. He had chosen Siráj-ud-Daulá for his successor, and latterly entrusted him with considerable power, which the spoilt boy wantonly misused, and by his acts of cruelty and debauchery was already preparing his destined fate. Alí Vardí Khán died in his eightieth year, and was buried in the garden of Khush Bágh, on the right bank of the Bhágirathí opposite Muti-jhil.

His character and mode of life are thus described by the native chronicler:—'Alí Vardí Khán from his early youth was not addicted to idle pleasures, as wine and opiates, music, or the company of

courtezans. He was regular in his devotions, and assiduously abstained from all things forbidden by the divine law. He generally rose two hours before day, and, after ablution and prayer, drank coffee with his select companions. At daybreak he gave public audience, when the commanders of his army, the civil officers, and persons of all ranks who had any applications to make were admitted without reserve, to set forth their business, and received satisfaction from his bounty. At the expiration of two hours he retired to a private apartment, where such only as were invited came. These were generally his nephews, Nuazish Muhammad, and Sayyid Ahmad, his grandson, Siráj-ud-Daulá, and particular friends. Pieces of poetry were now recited, or history or anecdotes read to him; and sometimes he even amused himself with giving directions to his cooks, who prepared victuals before him according to his palate. The officers of different departments, if necessary, also came for orders. He then sat down to eat with his friends, and many shared the bounties of his table. When the meal was over, the company retired to repose. At this time a story-teller always attended to relate some amusing narrative. He generally arose about an hour after mid-day, performed his devotions, and read in the *Kurán* till near four. After saying the prescribed prayers, and drinking a draught of water cooled with ice or saltpetre, he received learned men, in whose company he daily spent an hour, hearing them discuss points of divinity and law for his information. When they retired, the officers of the revenue, with Jagat Seth, his banker, were admitted, and gave him the intelligence received from Dehli and every province of the empire, also of each district of his own Government; after which he issued his orders to them, as the nature of the business required. An hour passed in this manner, and sometimes his near relations were allowed to be present. By this time night set in, lights were brought, and with them certain jesters and buffoons, who entertained him with their repartees on each other for a short time. He then retired to prayers; after which he sat in private with his own Begam, to receive the visits of near female relations till nine o'clock. The women then departed, and men were admitted who had business with him, till he retired to sleep, generally early, and without eating. In this manner he passed his time, having stated hours for every employment. He was unequalled in his benevolence to his relations, friends, and former acquaintance in his lower fortunes,

particularly to those who had shown him the smallest kindness when he was distressed at Dehli in his youth, sending for them or their children to his court, and conferring favours on them beyond their expectation.' When the French general, Bussy, after the death of Nasir Jang, the Nizám of the Dakhin, wrote to him in pompous terms of his victory, and recommended the factory of Chandernagar to his protection, he reflected upon the similarity of disposition between his intended successor, Siráj-ud-Daulá, whose enmity to the English he was apprized of, and the unfortunate Subahdár of the Dakhin, at the same time saying, 'he feared that after his death the Europeans would become masters of many parts of Hindustán.' Mustafá Khán, his principal general, had endeavoured to prevail upon him to expel the English from Calcutta, and seize their wealth; but receiving no reply to his advice, he urged it again, through the Nawáb's nephews, Nuazish Muhammad and Sayyid Ahmad. Alí Vardí Khán returned no answer, but shortly after said in private to the latter, 'My child, Mustafá Khán is a soldier, and wishes us to be constantly in need of his service; but how came you to join in his request? What have the English done against me, that I should use them ill? It is now difficult to extinguish fire on land; but should the sea be in flames, who can put it out? Never listen to such advice as his, for the result would probably be fatal.' 'In consequence of these sentiments,' continues Stewart (*History of Bengal*, ed. 1847, p. 305), 'the Europeans were little molested during his government, and were permitted to carry on their commerce according to the tenor of the *farmáns* they had received from the Emperor, on making the usual presents.'

It is in the reign of Alí Vardí Khán that the authentic documents of the English Government first begin to throw light upon the affairs of Bengal. The following passages are based upon Mr. Long's *Selections from Unpublished Records*. The quarrel there described between the Nawáb and the English shows that the expressions of Stewart quoted above are scarcely appropriate, and that Siráj-ud-Daulá, when he marched upon Calcutta, was intending merely to follow with greater decision in the steps of his grandfather.

Of the Government Records at Calcutta, the earliest is dated February 1748, and shows the alarm produced throughout Bengal by the Marhattá invasion of that year. The Marhattás had boarded and plundered the rich fleet of barges which was carrying the silks of the Company down the Húglí. The scene of this outrage was

near Kátwá, which was always the headquarters of these marauders. It would seem that the Marhattás were in the habit of respecting the property of the English, for this occurrence is regarded as most unusual. Negotiations for the recovery of the lost silk were opened through Uma Charan (Omichund), and the Marhattá general expressed his regret that such a thing should have taken place against his orders. In January 1749 a cause of quarrel arose between the English and the Nawáb. A king's ship had seized several vessels laden with the goods of various Húglí merchants, Muhammadan and Armenian, and also containing things of value belonging to the Nawáb. Alí Vardí Khán sent a *parwáná* to the Governor of Fort William, which concluded with the following menace: 'As you are not permitted to commit piracies, therefore I now write you, that on receipt of this you deliver up all the merchants' goods and effects to them, as also what appertains unto me, otherwise you may be assured a due chastisement in such manner as you least expect.' The Council first attempted to pacify the Nawáb by the present of a fine Arab horse, and contemplated measures of retaliation against the Armenian merchants of Calcutta. It soon appeared, however, that Alí Vardí Khán was in earnest. He ordered *peons* on all the *gumáshtás* of the Company's *aurangs*, and stopped the boats which were bringing down their goods. At Dacca he went so far as to cut off the supply of provisions, and reduced 'the gentlemen' of that place to the greatest straits. He surrounded the factory at Kásimbázár with troops, and finally compelled the English to come to his own terms. 'The English got off after paying to the Nawáb, through the Seths, twelve *lákhs* of rupees.' On another occasion, Alí Vardí Khán demanded the estate of a Turk (Musalmán), who had died at Calcutta intestate and without relatives. In 1751, after his claim had been paltered with for many years, he again threatened to order an attack on the factory at Kásimbázár. The Council forthwith paid over the value of the estate, and were compelled to add a further lump sum for interest.

(5) SIRAJ-UD-DAULA (Surajah Dowlah) was the eldest son of Zain-ud-Dín, who was both the nephew and son-in-law of the late Nawáb. His name was properly Mirzá Mahmud, but his grandfather, on his own accession to the Government, had procured for him from Dehli the title of Siráj-ud-Daulá, by which he is known in history. He was early adopted by Alí Vardí Khán for his heir, and from a child was indulged in the gratification of every caprice. In 1753, Alí

Vardí Khán placed his grandson by his side on the *masnad* as his successor, when the boy was only fifteen years old. This is the date given by Stewart (*History of Bengal*, ed. 1847, p. 308). It is stated, however, in Mr. Long's Records, of the date August 1752, that the Nawáb Siráj-ud-Daulá, whom Alí Vardí Khán had appointed to be his successor, was arrived at Húglí. The President, accompanied by two other members of Council and the Commandant, went to greet him with a present. The various articles which composed the present were valued at nearly Rs. 16,000. The President was 'received by the Nawáb with the utmost politeness and distinction, far superior than (*sic*) was paid to the Dutch or French. If these people's words are ever to be confided in,' continues the despatch to the Court of Directors, 'we flatter ourselves that the expense we have been at on this occasion has procured you great favour, and will be the means of your business being conducted without any interruption from the Government for some time to come.' From this time he was permitted to interfere in the affairs of Government, though his grandfather did not die until 1756. His uncle, Nuazish Muhammad, was then the Governor of Dacca and the eastern Districts, and the most influential man in the State. His power and wealth excited the envy of Siráj-ud-Daulá; and his two deputies were murdered. Nuazish Muhammad himself died, without leaving any children. His widow, Ghasíti Begam, inherited his palace at Muti-jhil, and the treasures which it contained. The first act of Siráj-ud-Daulá, on finding himself freed from restraint by the death of Alí Vardí Khán, was to storm this palace, and seize on the inheritance of his aunt. The treasury is said to have contained no less than sixty-one *lákhs* of rupees in gold and silver, and the value of the jewels, plate, elephants, etc., to have amounted to as much more. The next act, within two months after his accession, was his rupture with the English on some slight pretext, and his march on Calcutta. It is not necessary to repeat the oft-told stories of the 'Black Hole,' and of the battle of Plassey. After his defeat, the Nawáb fled up the Ganges towards Patná; when opposite Rájmahál he was betrayed by a *fakír*, whom he had maltreated in his day of prosperity, and was sent back a prisoner to the house of Mír Jafar in Murshidábád. Immediately on his arrival, he was murdered by the orders of Mirán, the son of Mír Jafar.

(6) MIR JAFAR (Meer Jaffier) was nominated by the English to

succeed to the Subah, as a reward for his support against the late Nawáb. He had been a distinguished general under Alí Vardí Khán, whose half-sister he had married, but he had been disgraced for disaffection. He was, however, after a time reinstated in favour, and appointed Bákshi or paymaster-general. On his dismissal from this office by Siráj-ud-Daulá, he commenced to plot against him, and finally attached himself so closely to the English as to receive the nickname of 'Clive's jackass.' It was on June 29, 1757, six days after the battle of Plassey, that Colonel Clive entered the city of Murshidábád, escorted by a guard of 200 Europeans and 300 *sipáhis*, and took possession of the palace and garden of Morád Bágh, which had been allotted as his residence. On the same day he visited the Nawáb's palace at Mansurganj, and in the hall of audience took Mír Jafar by the hand, led him to the empty *masnad* of Siráj-ud-Daulá, and seated him thereon. He then presented him with a salver of gold *mohurs*, and congratulated him on his accession to the government of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa. Difficulties soon arose about the payment of the price of this elevation. The treasuries of Murshidábád contained, no doubt, a large amount of coin, but henceforth the sources from which they were replenished began to dry up. Individuals still continued to accumulate considerable wealth, but the ordinary administration of the Government and the collection of the revenues became disorganized.

The following description of the treasuries of Murshidábád is mainly taken from the *Sair-i-Mutákharim*. The translator of that work[1] states that Mr. Walsh, the Commissary of the army, informed him that he accompanied Colonel Clive, Mr. Watts the Resident, Mr. Lushington, Rám Chand the writer, and Naba Krishna the *munshi*, into the vaults of the palace. They found stored up there, £176,000 in silver, £230,000 in gold, two chests of gold ingots, four chests of set jewels, and two smaller ones, containing loose stones and gems. It is supposed, however, that this was only the outer treasury, and that the English were deceived by their astute Bengalí associates. 'The custom,' says the chronicler, 'was common even with private men of keeping the more precious articles, as well as the bulk of the coined money, within the *zanáná* or women's apartment.' This inner treasury of Siráj-ud-Daulá is asserted to have contained eight million pounds sterling. The whole

[1] *Sair-i-Mutákharim*, vol. i. part ii. p. 773, note.

of this enormous sum is said to have been distributed between Mír Jafar, Rám Chand, Naba Krishna, and Amín Beg Khán. It is not probable that the new Nawáb succeeded in retaining much of his share, but we know enough about the circumstances of the others to render this marvellous story not altogether incredible. Rám Chand, at the time of the battle of Plassey, was a writer on Rs. 60 a month. He died ten years afterwards, worth £720,000 in cash and bills; and he also left 400 large water-pots, 80 containing gold, and the rest silver, £180,000 in land, and jewels to the value of £200,000. The wealth of Naba Krishna may be estimated from the fact that he was able to spend £90,000 upon the funeral of his mother. His salary in 1767 as political *banian* to the Company, to which post he had been appointed at the personal recommendation of Lord Clive, was only Rs. 200 a month. With reference to the proportion of the spoil that fell to the share of the English, the Committee of the House of Commons in 1773 disclosed a total of £3,388,575, which represents, it must be remembered, only the sums which were acknowledged to have been received. It was impossible that this vast sum of money should be paid over on one and the same day; but coin to the value of 80 *lákhs* of rupees, or £800,000, was immediately placed on board barges and sent down the river to Calcutta.

Mír Jafar was now Nawáb of Bengal, but owing to his imbecility of character, he never overcame the financial embarrassment caused by these donations. The Calcutta Council, also, ran rapidly through the wealth which had been so easily acquired. It was necessary both for the Nawáb and the English to maintain large armies to defend Bengal from the enemies who encircled the country. The English could not pay their troops without assistance from the Nawáb, but his treasury was now empty, and his own troops were also unpaid. The energy of his son Míran supported the Government for a season, but he died in 1760. The troops forthwith broke into open revolt, and Mír Jafar was compelled to cede his power into the more capable hands of his son-in-law, Mír Kásim.

(7) MIR KASIM (Meer Cossim) won the throne by means of his intrigues at Calcutta, and distributed among the members of Council 20 *lákhs* of rupees or £200,000 as the price of his elevation. At the same time he assigned to the Company the revenues of the three Districts of Bardwán, Midnapur, and Chittagong. From the first,

however, he seems to have resolved to attempt to recover his independence, and to reduce the English to the position which they occupied in the good old days of Alí Vardí Khán. He was eminently successful in restoring good order in the administration. He reduced to obedience all the rebellious *zamíndárs;* and effected such reforms in the financial department, that within eighteen months he discharged the whole of his pecuniary obligations to the English, and satisfied both his own and his predecessor's troops. It is stated in Grant's *Analysis of the Finances of Bengal*, that Mír Kásim raised the total *abwáb* or extraordinary taxation by no less than Rs. 7,481,340; and this, it must be recollected, from a diminished area. He remodelled his army on the fashion of the Company's *sipáhís*, and from his prolonged absence in Behar, appeared to have transferred the seat of Government from Murshidábád to Monghyr. The rupture with the English was not long delayed, but its immediate cause may be distinctly traced to the rapacity and insolence of the Company's servants of that time. They laid claim to an absolute freedom from transit duties in all the departments of their trade, not only for the operations of the Company, but also for the speculations of each individual. These pretensions could not be resisted, and the state of affairs that resulted is thus described by Mr. Verelst, who was himself in Bengal at the time (*View of Bengal*, pp. 8 and 46):—'At this time many black merchants found it expedient to purchase the name of any young writer in the Company's service by loans of money, and under this sanction harassed and oppressed the natives. . . . A trade was carried on without payment of duties, in the prosecution of which infinite oppressions were committed. English agents or *gumáshtás*, not content with injuring the people, trampled on the authority of Government, binding and punishing the Nawáb's officers whenever they presumed to interfere. This was the immediate cause of the war with Mír Kásim.' Mr. Vansittart, a Madras civilian introduced by Lord Clive, was at this time governor of Fort William, and it should be recorded in his honour that he always opposed himself to the system which permitted these enormities. He found, however, only a single supporter in the Council, the great Warren Hastings. The latter was so out-spoken in reprehension of the course of conduct by which the natives were being oppressed, that he was subjected to the grossest insults from his brother-councillors. He was charged, together with the Governor, in a minute delivered in by Mr. Batson,

'with acting the part rather of a retained solicitor of the Nawáb than of a servant of the Company or a British subject.' An altercation ensued. Mr. Batson gave him the lie, and struck him in the presence of the Board. Within less than a month, war was declared against the Nawáb by the majority of the Council, while both the Governor and Warren Hastings stood neutral. But the news of the expulsion of the English from Patná arrived at this time, and Warren Hastings recorded his altered views in the following minute:—'It was my resolution, as soon as a war should be declared, to resign the Company's service, being unwilling to join in giving authority to past measures of which I disapproved. . . . But since our late melancholy advices, it is my intention to join my endeavours for the good of the service as long as the war shall last.'

The proximate cause of hostilities was on this wise. Mír Kásim, after much negotiation, had agreed to a convention, which was also accepted by Mr. Vansittart, the Governor, that a duty of only 9 per cent. should be paid by Englishmen, which was immensely below the rate exacted from other traders. This convention, however, was repudiated by the Council at Calcutta. The Nawáb, in retaliation, resolved to abandon all duties whatever on the transit of goods, and to throw the trade of the country perfectly open. This resolution was still more disagreeable to the Company's servants than the convention had been. A deputation, consisting of Mr. Hay and Mr. Amyatt, was despatched to Monghyr, where Mír Kásim had fixed his residence. But it was now too late for negotiation. Disputes between the *gumáshtás* of the English and the Muhammadan officers were breaking out daily in every District of Bengal. Mr. Ellis, the Chief of Patná, threatened to commence hostilities by occupying the city with his *sipáhis*. The Nawáb seized some boats laden with arms for that place, as they were passing up the Ganges under the walls of Monghyr. Mr. Ellis surprised and took the city of Patná; and Mr. Amyatt, who was on his return to Calcutta, was attacked by the people of the Nawáb and massacred with all his attendants. The scene of this tragedy, which served only to stir up the English to revenge, was the beautiful reach of the Bhágirathí which lies between Murshidábád and Kásimbázár. The war opened favourably for the Nawáb. The English at Patná were attacked while scattered through the town, overpowered, and taken prisoners. The whole of Bengal as far south as the present District of Nádiyá was occupied by the

Muhammadans, and the factory of Kásimbázár was for the second time plundered. The English concentrated their forces at Agradwíp near Nadiyá. After some trifling engagements they recovered possession of Murshidábád, and encountered the main body of the Nawáb's forces at Gheriá, near the departure of the Bhágirathí from the Ganges, on July 24, 1763. In the end, the victory of the English was complete, and as the result of the battle of Gheriá, Bengal was for the second time conquered. Mír Kásim fled to Monghyr, where he caused the two Seths, the great bankers, whom he had dragged with him from Murshidábád, to be thrown from the bastions of the fortress into the river, and ordered the murder of his English prisoners at Patná. The battle of Buxar finally drove him to take refuge among the Rohillás; and he is said to have retired finally to Dehli, where he died in 1777, in great indigence and obscurity.

MIR JAFAR, Nawáb for the second time. On the first outbreak of hostilities, the English had resolved to depose Mír Kásim, and to place a more complaisant Nawáb on the *masnad.* Negotiations were accordingly opened with Mír Jafar, who was residing for the sake of safety at Calcutta. He was willing to consent to every demand made upon him, and was accordingly reinstalled at Murshidábád. The price of this new revolution amounted to more than £1,700,000; and in addition, the Company's servants gained their main object, the exemption of their own goods from all duties, and the reimposition of the old charges upon all traders but themselves. Mír Jafar gained but little by his abject submissiveness, except the transmission of the title to his family. He was already broken by age and by disease. His death took place in January 1765, and is said to have been hastened by the unseemly importunity with which the English at Calcutta pressed upon him their private claims to restitution.

(8) NAZIM-UD-DAULA, the eldest surviving son of Mír Jafar, was chosen by the English to succeed his father; and in accordance with the explicit conditions of his advancement, divided £140,000 among the members of Council. This payment is the more noteworthy, as there could be no pretext for saying that it was the reward for any services rendered, or the compensation for any loss. The whole also went into the pockets of individual civilians, and none to the Company or to the army. The new Nawáb was about 20 years of age at this time, and died within three years; but his short rule witnessed one more of the steps by which the Muham-

madan power was gradually superseded. In May 1765, Lord Clive arrived at Calcutta with full power as Commander-in-Chief, President, and Governor in Bengal. Among his sweeping reforms was the settlement, which he assumed would be final, of the relations between the Nawáb and the Company. Within two months after landing in India, he proceeded to Murshidábád. The Nawáb was required to resign the management of the revenues and the command of his troops—in short, to make over the Subahdárí to the Company. An annual sum of *sikká* Rs. 5,386,131, or about £600,000, was allowed to him for the expenses of his court and the administration of justice. He was further required to submit to the control of a board of advisers in all his affairs. This board was composed of Rája Dulabh Rám, Jagat Seth, and Muhammad Rezá Khán; and in addition, a servant of the Company was always to reside at Murshidábád and exercise a general superintendence. The character of the young prince may be conjectured from the joy with which he accepted these proposals. 'Thank God,' he exclaimed, 'I shall now have as many dancing girls as I like.' The rent-roll, which he abandoned with a light heart, is estimated in Grant's *Analysis of the Finances of Bengal* at Rs. 25,624,223. To this total, which was the revenue of Bengal proper alone, there must be added 65 *lákhs* proceeding from the Subah of Behar, and 11 *lákhs* more as the annual revenue of Midnapur, which was then the only portion of Orissa which recognised Muhammadan authority. The total effective income of Bengal with its dependencies in 1765 was about three *krors* and 32 *lákhs* of *sikká* rupees, or nearly 3½ millions sterling. Lord Clive next proceeded to the English camp in the north-west, and there received in person from the Emperor, Sháh Alam, the grant of the Díwání or financial administration of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa. The date of this memorable event was August 12, 1765. In the following year Lord Clive took his seat as Diwán at Muti-jhil, near Murshidábád, and in concert with the Nawáb, who sat as Názím, opened the Punyá, or ceremony of commencing the annual collections of revenue, in full *darbár*. On 8th May 1766, a few days after this ceremony, Názím-ud-Daulá died. His habits had not been such as conduce to health, but suspicions of foul play were created by the suddenness of his end.

(9) SAIF-UD-DAULA, his brother, a youth of sixteen, succeeded. By the treaty with the Company which placed him on the *masnad*, his annual 'stipend' was fixed at *sikká* Rs. 4,186,131, or about

£450,000. He died of small-pox, in 1769, the year of the great famine.

(10) MUBARAK-UD-DAULA, another son of Mír Jafar, and a child of but a few years of age, was appointed Nawáb, and at first similar arrangements were made with him as had endured during the lives of his two brothers. On his accession, the Governor and Council of Fort William agreed to pay him an annual 'stipend' of *sikká* Rs. 3,181,991, or nearly £350,000. The Court of Directors in England had, however, now resolved on a new policy, to which the infancy of the Nawáb readily lent itself. They had determined to 'stand forth as Díwán, and by the agency of the Company's servants to take upon themselves the entire care and management of the revenues.' This resolution was formed in 1771, and Warren Hastings, the first Governor-General of Bengal, was to carry it into effect. In the same year, availing themselves of the plea of the non-age of the Nawáb, and under the pressure of their pecuniary embarrassments, they had ordered the annual stipend of the Nawáb to be reduced to sixteen *lákhs* of rupees, or £160,000,—the sum at which it has stood to the present day. This reduction was, accordingly, effected in January 1772. In April 13 of the same year, Warren Hastings arrived in Calcutta, and before that month was out, the great reform had been effected. Muhammad Rezá Khán, the Náib Díwán at Murshidábád, and Rájá Shitáb Rái, who filled the same office at Patná, were both suddenly apprehended, and brought down as prisoners to Calcutta. Their offices were abolished, the *khalsá*, or principal office of revenue, was transferred from Murshidábád to Calcutta; and the Council, with Hastings at its head, was constituted a Board of Revenue, assisted by a subordinate native functionary who was termed Rái Ráyan. The supreme judicial power in criminal cases was at the same time vested in the President and Council. But it was soon found that this additional duty involved too great responsibility, and in October 1775 the Court of Nizámat Adálat was moved back to Murshidábád, and again placed under the control of Muhammad Rezá Khán, as Náib Názim. The name of Collector, together with many of the functions discharged by that officer, also owes its existence to the reform of 1772. There was yet one more step to be taken. Lord Cornwallis, in 1790, announced that he had 'resolved to accept the superintendence of the administration of criminal justice throughout the provinces.' The Nizámat Adálat was a second time transferred

from Murshidábád to Calcutta, to consist of the Governor-General and members of the Supreme Council, assisted by the head native law officers. In 1793, four Courts of Circuit, each superintended by a covenanted servant of the Company, were established for the trial of cases not punishable by the Magistrates.

The only function of Government that remained to the Muhammadans was thus transferred directly into English hands, and the city of Murshidábád ceased to bear any longer the semblance of a capital; and the Nawáb lost the last shadow of his authority.

From this date the words of Lord Macaulay become strictly applicable: 'The heir of Mír Jafar still resides at Murshidábád, the ancient capital of his house, still bears the title of Nawáb, is still accosted by the English as "Your Highness," and is still suffered to retain a portion of the regal state which surrounded his ancestors. A pension of one hundred and sixty thousand pounds a year is annually paid to him by the Government. His carriage is surrounded by guards, each preceded by attendants with silver maces. His person and dwelling are exempted from the ordinary authority of the ministers of justice. But he has not the smallest share of political power, and is in fact only a noble and wealthy subject.' As a matter of fact, only the sum of between £50,000 and £60,000 is placed at the disposal of the Nawáb. From the remainder are paid the stipends of the collateral branches of the family, and the balance constitutes a deposit-fund, out of which are defrayed the charges on account of the Agency and the College, together with other expenses incurred on account of the family.

The Nawáb Mubárak-ud-Daulá died in 1796. The following is a list of the names of those who have since borne the title, together with the dates of their accession:—

(11) NAZIM-UL-MULK. 1796. In 1802, Viscount Valentia visited Murshidábád, and had interviews with Mani Begam, the widow of Mír Jafar, and with the Nawáb. In his *Voyages and Travels by the Ganges*, vol. i. pp. 96, 186, he states that the magnificent jewels which the Nawáb was wearing at the time of his visit had been taken out of pawn for the occasion, and that the creditors were waiting down-stairs to watch and receive them again on his departure. He describes the palanquin of the Nawáb as being all of cloth of gold, with panels of glass, and doors of the same material.

(12) SAIZAD ZAIN-UD-DIN ALI KHAN. 1810.

(13) HUMAYUN JAH. 1821.

(14) MANSUN ALI KHAN. 1838. The present Nawáb, who is now (1876) residing in England, near Brighton.

REVENUE UNDER THE MUHAMMADAN RULE.—By the financial reforms of Murshid Kulí Khán, Murshidábád was constituted one of the thirteen *chaklahs* into which the whole of Bengal was divided. The area of the old *chaklah* of Murshidábád cannot be compared with the present District. It seems to have been co-extensive with the whole of what was afterwards known as the *zamíndárí* of Rájsháhí, which included the greater part of the Rájsháhí Division, and a great deal besides. It extended over the present Districts of Rájsháhí, Bográ, Pábná, and Murshidábád; and covered also the larger portions of Maldah, Bírbhúm, and Nadiyá. It is evident, therefore, that the revenue raised from this tract cannot be brought into comparison with the revenue of Murshidábád District under the British rule. According to the assessment of 1722, which is given in detail in Grant's *Analysis of the Finances of Bengal*, the revenue of Murshidábád *chaklah* amounted to Rs. 2,999,126, or more than one-fifth of the revenue of the entire Province of Bengal. This total, however, appears to include not only the land revenue, but also the mint duties of Murshidábád, which yielded Rs. 304,103, and the Chunakhálí taxes, which gave Rs. 311,603. This last item represents all the varying imposts on houses and on trade that were levied within the city of Murshidábád, of which the export duties on silk formed a considerable portion.

The rent-roll of 1722 contains also an estimate of the value of the *jágír* or rent-free grant of land, which was attached to the office of the Nawáb, and formed his recognised official income. This *jágír* consisted of 296 entire or broken *parganás*, scattered throughout the country, of which the annual rent was estimated in the imperial books at Rs. 1,605,603; but, according to the principles of valuation adopted for the assessment of other *zamíndárís*, this estimate falls to Rs. 1,070,465. It is curious to observe how closely the larger estimate approximates to the amount of the annual pension which has been paid to the Nawáb by the British since 1772. 'This *jágír* was known as Sarkár Alí, and formed the viceregal establishment of the Subahdár of the three Provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, out of which had to be defrayed a large portion of the military expenses of Government, the whole of the Nawáb's household expenses in his private and public capacity, together with the greater part of the civil-list charges, inclusive of those usually incurred in the

faujdárí or high court of criminal judicature.' The lands were invariably held under the direct management of the Nizámat family.

Revenue and Expenditure under British Administration.—It has been found impossible to present a comparative statement of the Revenue and Expenditure of Murshidábád, such as has been given for other Districts. No materials exist for years earlier than 1837; and those that have been furnished to me by the Collector, for that year and subsequent periods, are manifestly too incomplete to support any definite conclusions. It is not only that large sums are entered upon each side of the balance sheet which are mere matters of account and transfer; for that defect may be easily remedied, as in the case of other Districts. But, in addition to this, important items on the expenditure side, such as police, jails, and education, are altogether omitted; so that the net expenditure of those early years cannot, in any fair sense, be compared with the cost of administration at the present day. So far as regards the revenue, the only item which tells its own tale is that of the Land Revenue; and the amount of progress under this heading will be given in detail in a subsequent paragraph. It has, however, been deemed advisable to print the gross balance sheets of the District in early years in a condensed form (p. 197); for though they are valueless for comparative purposes, they display the mode in which the District accounts were formerly kept, and the large sums of money which used to pass through the Barhampur treasury. The net balance sheet for 1870-71 (p. 198) may be accepted as a tolerably correct statement of the amount of taxation levied in the District, as compared with the cost of local administration. Wherever possible, the items are taken from the Reports of the several Departments; and the remaining figures have been supplied in a special report by the Collector. There are, however, some items on each side of the account which still require comment. On the revenue side, the receipts derived from the Jangipur toll office have been inserted, though there is no corresponding entry on the expenditure side. The expenses of keeping open the Bhágirathí, which are defrayed from these tolls, are kept in the same account with those of the Nadiyá rivers generally, and not charged upon the District of Murshidábád. On the expenditure side of the account, the two first items, 'Collectorate' and 'Commissioner's Office,' have been accepted as furnished by the Collector, as probably including

[*Sentence continued on page* 199.

Gross Balance-Sheets of Murshidabad District, for the Years 1835–36, 1851–52, 1860–61.

Revenue.	1835-36.	1851-52.	1860-61.
	£	£	£
1. Land Revenue,	122,870	128,789	129,379
2. *Abkári*, or Excise,	7,811	12,219	14,693
3. Stamps,	6,942	6,111	9,830
4. Post Office,	1,304	491	1,729
5. Police,	754	605	614
6. Judicial Charges, General,	1,327	3	1,790
7. General Department Charges,	12	1	758
8. Education,	...	73	...
9. Toll Remittances,	...	7,876	...
10. Profit and Loss,	8,653	2,043	134
11. Remittances,	238,874	138,771	9,223
12. Bills Issued,	...	33,876	76,262
13. *Darbár* Department,	...	3,657	...
Total,	388,547	334,515	244,412

Expenditure.	1835-36.	1851-52.	1860-61.
	£	£	£
1. Revenue Charges, General,	3,093	22,490	7,936
2. Land Revenue,	950	102	...
3. *Abkári*, or Excise,	...	2,462	...
4. Stamps,	275	703	439
5. *Sáyer* Compensation,	253	266	...
6. Post Office,	...	...	1,113
7. General Department Charges,	1,376	1,384	5,770
8. Judicial Charges, General,	20,889	18,050	20,427
9. Revenue Remittance,	195,237	63,080	7,531
10. Profit and Loss,	3,592	94	216
11. Pension,	...	1,348	74,279
12. *Darbár* Department,	...	159,745	...
13. *Nizámat*,	146,888	...	...
14. Miscellaneous Advances,	...	...	208,476
Total,	372,553	269,724	261,873

In this Table rupees have been converted into the nearest pound sterling, and the odd shillings have been disregarded.

NET BALANCE SHEET OF MURSHIDABAD DISTRICT, FOR THE YEAR 1870–71.

REVENUE.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	EXPENDITURE.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Land Revenue—			Collectorate,		9,887 14 0
Land Revenue,	132,354 0 0		Commissioners' Office,		3,453 16 0
Malikáná,	12 4 0		Law and Justice—		
Police,	628 0 0		Magistrate's Establishment,	1,723 8 0	
Miscellaneous,	68 6 0		Salaries and Establishment of Civil Courts,	3,394 14 0	
Abkárí, or Excise—		133,062 10 0	Registration Establishment,	476 12 0	
Liquors and Drugs,	8,589 10 0		Small Cause Court Establishment,	1,349 16 0	
Opium,	6,001 12 0				6,944 10 0
		14,591 2 0	†Police (Regular),		12,915 4 0
Stamps,		17,813 14 0	†Jails,		723 18 5
Law and Justice—			†Education (paid by Government),		6,555 12 6
Civil and Revenue Fines,	2 4 0		†Post Office,		1,441 6 7
Amins' Fees,	373 14 0		Income Tax,		1,085 16 0
Criminal Fines,	1,123 14 0		*Abkárí*, or Excise,		653 14 0
Registration Fees,	889 8 0		Discount on Sale of Stamps,		460 4 0
Miscellaneous Forfeitures,	377 16 0		Medical Service,		2,343 8 0
		2,766 16 0	Ecclesiastical,		944 16 0
*Income Tax,		12,174 0 0	‡Interest on Government Promissory Notes,		3,504 8 0
*Post Office,		2,446 16 7	‡Refunds and Deposits,		864 6 0
*Net Profit from Jail Manufactures,		121 4 6	Superannuation Pension,		161 8 0
Jangipur Tolls,		8,435 4 0	‡Assignments under Treaties and Engagements,		81,327 6 0
Local Funds—			Local Funds—		
Ferry,			Ferry Fund,	1 0 0	
Tolls on Roads,	1,761 16 0		Amalgamated District Road Fund,	2,404 10 0	
One per cent. Road Fund,	117 12 0		Pound Fund,	67 10 0	
Pound Fund,	82 0 0		Town Tax Fund,	5,795 0 0	
Circuit House Rent,	856 6 0		*Chauktdárí* Tax Fund,	161 12 0	
Town Tax,	7 12 0		*Zamíndárí dák* Fund,	250 14 0	
Chauktdárí (or Rural Police) Tax,	4,567 18 0		Staging Bungalow Fund,	33 6 0	
Zamíndárí dák Fund,	119 10 0		Police Clothing Fund,	638 16 0	
Staging Bungalow Fund,	347 12 0		Wards' and Attached Estates,	264 4 0	
Police Clothing Fund,	20 4 0		Cantonment Fund,	18 12 0	
Rates from Wards' and Attached Estates,	394 10 0		Peons' Fee Fund,	506 6 0	
Cantonment Fund,	80 16 0				10,121 10 0
Peons' Fee Fund,	41 0 0				
Miscellaneous,	750 12 0				
	12 14 0	9,070 2 0			
Total,		200,481 9 1	Total,		143,388 17 6

* These three items have been obtained from the several Departments; the remainder have been furnished by the Collector.
† These four items have been obtained from the several Departments; the remainder have been furnished by the Collector.
‡ These three items are not properly charges on the Local Treasury.

Sentence continued from page 196.]
salaries as well as establishment charges; though, in the case of other Districts, the salaries of the civil servants have been taken from the Bengal Civil List, and a proportion of the Commissioner's salary assigned to each District of the Rájsháhí Division. It must be recollected, too, that Murshidábád is now (1876) no longer the headquarters of a Division. The item headed, 'Assignments under Treaties and Engagements,' is not strictly a matter of District account, but rather an imperial charge, recalling the days when Murshidábád city was the capital of Bengal. It must further be observed that the amount here given under this head, viz. £81,327, does not cover so much as one-half of the actual charges of the *Nizámat.* 'Interest on Government Promissory Notes' may also be reckoned an imperial rather than a local item of expenditure; and the following figure, entitled 'Refunds and Deposits,' ought perhaps to be excluded altogether, as a mere matter of account. Making the deductions suggested, the net revenue of Murshidábád District for 1870-71 would amount to £192,046, 5s. 1d.; towards which the land revenue contributed £133,062, 10s. 0d., or 69·28 per cent. In the same way, the net expenditure for 1870-71 would amount to £57,692, 17s. 6d., or 30·04 per cent. of the net revenue.

To illustrate the sources of revenue in greater detail, I subjoin a statement taken from the Report of the Revenue Surveyor in 1857:—'The different collections made in Murshidábád District are:—(1) the land revenue; (2) the *abkárí* or excise; (3) the *chaukídárí* or police tax; (4) river tolls.

(1.) Land Revenue—			
Tauji under fixed Revenue, . . .	£129,310	0	4
Tauji fluctuating, ...	90	16	1
Total, .	£129,400	16	5
(2.) *Abkárí* or Excise—			
Kulál or country spirit from *gur* or *mahuá*,	£5,455	5	9
Pachwai or country spirit from rice, . .	109	7	7
Tárí or toddy from date palm, . . .	·632	16	11
Gánjá from hemp, ...	2,174	1	1
Madat from opium and *pán*, . . .	394	14	10
Sabjí or dried hemp leaves for smoking, etc.,	22	14	0
Májum or sweetmeat made from opium, hemp, etc.,	4	11	6
European wines (retail), ...	31	14	5
European wines (wholesale), ...	8	0	0
Total, . .	£8,833	6	1

Brought forward, . . .	£8,833	6	1
Deduct cost of collection, ...	1,071	9	11
Net Total, .	£7,761	16	2
(3.) *Chaukídárí* or police tax, ...	3,416	19	8
Deduct cost of collection, ...	266	3	11
Net Total, .	£3,150	15	9
(4.) River tolls, ...	8,816	14	10
Net Grand Total Receipts,	£149,130	3	2

'When the Company first acquired possession of this part of Bengal, three other taxes were also collected, which have now become extinct:—(1) *Mánjhí salámí*, a tax paid by boatmen, just as in other parts of the country collections used to be made from weavers, carpenters, smiths, and other artisans; (2) *pál salámí*, a tax paid by *baldiás* or *brinjárás*, who keep pack-bullocks for hire; (3) an *abwáb*, or increase of one *ánná* in the rupee on certain articles, supposed to have been an ancient charity added at some remote period to the Government revenue.'

THE NIZAMAT FUND.—Apart from the ordinary balance sheet of the District, but not altogether independent of the Barhampur treasury, there is kept the Nizámat Stipend Fund, which represents the annual assignment from the British Government towards the maintenance of the Nawáb Názím of Murshidábád. The amount of this grant remains very nearly at the figure to which it was reduced in the year 1771. It is now administered under Government officials, and from it are defrayed all the many miscellaneous charges connected with the state and luxury of the titular sovereign. In 1873-74 the total net receipts credited to this fund, as given in the provincial balance sheet of Bengal, amounted to £173,848, 4s. 0d. For the same year the expenditure is put down at £128,860. In the previous year the expenditure had been £142,464, 16s. 0d. This larger sum included a special payment of £2000 on account of the marriage of a daughter of the Nawáb; charges for construction and repair of buildings, amounting to £5700 more than in the succeeding year; and exceptional payments for establishment and pensions.

LAND REVENUE.—The most important source of revenue has always been derived from the land tax, which still furnishes about two-thirds of the total receipts. Unfortunately, I have not been

able to obtain any information for the early years of English administration; and in Muhammadan times there was no fiscal unit at all corresponding to the present area of the District of Murshidábád. In 1835-36, the first year for which any figures have been furnished, the land tax yielded £122,870; in 1851-52, £128,789; in 1860-61, £129,379; and in 1870-71 the total amount actually realized from land revenue amounted to £133,062. It would appear, therefore, that during the period of the last thirty-five years, the amount of revenue raised from this source has increased by £10,192, or about 8 per cent.

Subdivision of Estates.—In 1849-50 the total number of estates on the rent-roll of the District was 2656; the number of registered proprietors or coparceners paying rent direct to Government was 4581; the total land revenue paid was £130,566, 4s. 0d.; the average for each estate being £49, 3s. 2d., and for each proprietor £28, 10s. 0d. In 1870-71 the number of estates was 2853, and of proprietors or coparceners 5040; and the total land revenue paid amounted to £133,062, 10s. 0d.; the average per estate being £46, 12s. 9d., and the average per proprietor £26, 8s. 0d.

Rent Cases instituted under Act X. of 1859.—It has already been stated that this Act has had but little operation in enhancing rents in Murshidábád District. That application to its provisions is not uniformly on the increase, is shown by the following statement of rent cases under Act X. or laws based upon that Act. In 1861-62, the number of original suits was 2722, and of miscellaneous cases 2558; in 1862-63, the original suits were 2565, the miscellaneous cases 2885; in 1866-67, the original suits were 2684, the miscellaneous cases 1865; in 1868-69, the original suits were 2510, the miscellaneous cases 2911.

Protection to Person and Property.—In 1841, the first year for which records are available, there were within the District 4 Magisterial Courts; in 1850, there were 3 Magisterial and 11 Civil and Revenue Courts; in 1860-61, there were 15 Magisterial, 8 Civil, and 11 Revenue Courts; in 1870-71, there were 11 Magisterial, 7 Civil, and 11 Revenue Courts. The number of covenanted civil servants stationed in the District was 4 in 1841, 3 in 1850, 2 in 1860-61, and 3 in 1870-71.

Police Statistics.—For police purposes, Murshidábád District was divided at the time of the Census of 1872 into the following twenty-five police circles or *thánás*:—In the *sadr* Sub-

division, (1) Sujáganj; (2) Gorá-bázár; (3) Barwá; (4) Nawádá; (5) Hariharpárá; (6) Jalangí; (7) Gowás; (8) Daulatbázár; (9) Bhagwángolá; (10) Díwánsarái; (11) Badrihát; (12) Kaliánganj. In the Lálbágh Subdivision, (13) Asánpur; (14) Mánullábázár; (15) Sháhnagar; (16) Nalhátí; (17) Rámpur Hát. In the Kándí Subdivision, (18) Gokaran; (19) Khargáon; (20) Bharatpur. In the Jangipur Subdivision, (21) Ragunáthganj; (22) Mirzápur; (23) Palsá; (24) Sútí, and (25) Shamsherganj. Since 1872, the Subdivision of Rámpur Hát has taken the place of Kándí; and consequently the arrangement of the *thánás* enumerated above has been altered to a certain extent. The present police force of Murshidábád District consists of three distinct bodies, namely, the regular or District police, a municipal police for the protection of the towns, and a village watch or rural police. The total strength and cost of maintenance of each of these bodies are as follow:—

THE REGULAR POLICE consisted of the following strength at the end of 1872:—2 superior European officers, maintained at a total salary of Rs. 850 a month, or £1020 a year; 9 subordinate officers on a salary of upwards of Rs. 100 a month, or £120 a year, and 130 subordinate officers on less than Rs. 100 a month, or £120 a year, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 4685 a month, or £5622 a year, or an average pay of Rs. 33. 11. 3 a month, or £40, 8s. 11d. a year, for each subordinate officer; and 541 foot police constables, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 3751 a month, or £4501, 4s. 0d. a year, or an average pay of Rs. 6. 14. 11 a month, or £8, 6s. 5d. a year, for each man. The other expenses connected with the regular police are a sum of Rs. 140. 8. 0 a month, or £168, 12s. 0d. a year, as travelling expenses for the District and Assistant District Superintendents; Rs. 150 a month, or £180 a year, for pay and travelling allowances of their establishments; and Rs. 1173. 1. 4 a month, or £1407, 14s. 0d. a year, for contingencies and all other expenses; bringing up the total cost of the regular police in Murshidábád District in 1872 to Rs. 10,749. 9. 0 a month, or £12,899, 10s. 0d. a year. The total strength is 682 men of all ranks. The area of Murshidábád District is 2578 square miles, and the total population, as returned by the Census of 1872, is 1,353,626. According to these figures the total strength of the regular police is one man to every 3·78 square miles of the District area, or one man to every 1984 of the population. The annual cost of maintenance is equal to Rs. 50. 0. 7 or £5, 0s. 1d.

per square mile of area, or R. 0. 1. 6 or 2¼d. per head of the population.

THE MUNICIPAL POLICE at the end of 1872 consisted of a force of 17 officers and 333 men, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 2147. 14. 8 a month, or £2577, 10s. od. a year. Murshidábád District contains the five following municipalities:—(1) Murshidábád city, (2) Barhampur, (3) Kándí, (4) Jangipur, (5) Daulatábád. The population of the last of these five, which is only a *chaukídárí* union, is not separately given by the Census Report of 1872. But according to the Report of the Inspector-General of Police, the total town population protected by municipal police is 102,200, which would give 1 policeman to every 292 inhabitants. The cost of the municipal police in 1872, as compared with the town population, is 4 *ánnás* or 6d. per head of the population.

THE RURAL POLICE or Village Watch in 1872 consisted of 5315 persons, maintained either by the *zamíndárs* or by the villagers, at an estimated total cost, including both sources, of Rs. 182,202 or £18,220, 4s. od. per annum, equal to one man to every ·48 of a square mile of area, or one man to every 254 of the population. Each village watchman has, on an average, charge of 47 houses, and receives an average pay in money or lands of Rs. 2. 14. 10 a month, or £3, 8s. 7d. a year. The cost of maintenance is equal to £7, 1s. 4d. per square mile, or nearly 3¼d. per head of the population.

Including, therefore, the regular District police, the municipal or town police, and the rural constabulary, the machinery for protecting person and property in Murshidábád District consisted, at the end of 1872, of a total force of 6347 officers and men, equal to an average of one man to every ·40 of a square mile as compared with the area, or one man to every 213 souls as compared with the population. The estimated aggregate cost, both Government and private, of maintaining this force, in 1872, amounted to Rs. 28,080. 15. 8 a month, or a total for the year of £33,697, 4s. od., equal to a charge of Rs. 130. 11. 4 or £13, 1s. 5d. per square mile of area, or R. 0. 4. 0 or 6d. per head of the population.

CRIMINAL STATISTICS.—During the year 1872, 2883 'cognisable' cases were reported to the police, of which 583 were discovered to be false, and 99 cases were not inquired into, under section cxvii. of the Criminal Procedure Code. Convictions were obtained in 594 cases, or 26·98 per cent. of the 'true' cases,—the proportion of

'true' cases being one to every 615 of the population, and the proportion of cases resulting in convictions one to every 2279 of the population. Of 'non-cognisable' cases, 2989 were instituted, in which process issued against 3837 persons, of whom 950 or 24·75 per cent. were convicted, the proportion of persons convicted of 'non-cognisable' offences being one to every 1425 of the population.

The following details of the cases and convictions for different crimes and offences in 1872 are taken from the Report of the Inspector-General of Police for that year. The 'cognisable' cases were as follow:—Class I. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, safety, and justice—Offences relating to coin, stamps, and Government notes, 1 case, and 1 conviction, 3 persons tried, 2 convicted; harbouring an offender, 3 cases, and no conviction, 2 persons tried, no conviction; offences against public justice, 14 cases, 6 convictions, 21 persons tried, 12 convicted; rioting or unlawful assembly, 75 cases, 22 convictions, 343 persons tried, and 115 convicted; personating public servant or soldier, 3 persons tried, 2 convicted. Class II. Serious offences against the person—Murder by *dakáits*, 1 case, no conviction; murder by robbers, 2 cases, no conviction, 4 persons tried, none convicted; other murders, 9 cases, no conviction, 17 persons tried, no conviction; attempts at murder, 4 cases, no conviction, 1 person tried, no conviction; culpable homicide, 6 cases, 3 convictions, 22 persons tried, 6 convicted; rape, 15 cases, 2 convictions, 23 persons tried, 2 convicted; unnatural offences, 3 cases, no conviction, 2 persons tried, no conviction; exposure of infants or concealment of birth, 4 cases, 1 conviction, 1 person tried, and 1 convicted; attempt at and abetment of suicide, 13 cases, 4 convictions, 8 persons tried, 4 convicted; grievous hurt for the purpose of extorting property or confession, 1 case, no conviction, 2 persons tried, no conviction; grievous hurt, 40 cases, 6 convictions, 60 men tried, 11 convicted; hurt for purpose of extorting property or confession, 8 cases, no conviction, 16 persons tried, none convicted; hurt by dangerous weapon, 19 cases, 8 convictions, 22 persons tried, 10 convicted; kidnapping or abduction, 13 cases, 1 conviction, 17 persons tried, 7 convicted; wrongful confinement and restraint, 18 cases, no conviction, 27 persons tried, none convicted; selling, letting, or unlawfully obtaining a woman for prostitution, 1 case, no conviction, 2 persons tried, none convicted; criminal force to public servant or

woman, or in attempt to commit theft, etc., 47 cases, 11 convictions, 54 persons tried, 18 convicted; rash or negligent act causing death or grievous hurt, 2 cases, 2 convictions, 3 persons tried, 2 convicted. Class III. Serious offences against person and property—*Dakáiti*, 28 cases, 8 convictions, 123 persons tried, 27 convicted; robbery in dwelling-house, 7 cases, 1 conviction, 2 persons tried, 1 convicted; robbery on the highway by night, 7 cases, no conviction, 4 persons tried, none convicted; other robberies, 14 cases, no convictions, 12 persons tried, 3 convicted; serious mischief and cognate offences, 40 cases, 2 convictions, 25 persons tried, 5 convicted; lurking house trespass, or housebreaking with intent to commit an offence, or having made preparation for hurt, 510 cases, 30 convictions, 98 persons tried, 42 convicted; house trespass with a view to commit an offence, or having made preparation for hurt, 26 cases, 8 convictions, 64 persons tried, 38 convicted; habitually receiving stolen property, 1 case, 1 conviction, 8 persons tried, 3 convicted. Class IV. Minor offences against the person—Hurt on grave or sudden provocation, 5 cases, no conviction; wrongful restraint and confinement, 118 cases, 33 convictions, 211 persons tried, 82 convicted. Class V. Minor offences against property—Lurking house trespass or housebreaking, 118 cases, 4 convictions, 20 persons tried, 4 convicted; cattle theft, 73 cases, 21 convictions, 73 persons tried, 22 convicted; ordinary theft, 1060 cases, 205 convictions, 842 persons tried, 299 convicted; criminal breach of trust, 95 cases, 11 convictions, 82 persons tried, 12 convicted; receiving stolen property, 67 cases, 41 convictions, 131 persons tried, 58 convicted; criminal or house trespass, 233 cases, 67 convictions, 343 persons tried, 153 convicted. Class VI. Other offences not specified above—Vagrancy and bad character, 53 cases, 10 convictions, 52 persons tried, 12 convicted; offences under the Gambling Act, 15 cases, 8 convictions, 113 persons tried, 89 convicted; offences under the Excise Laws, 45 cases, 24 convictions, 71 persons tried, 42 convicted; offences under the Railway Laws, 1 case, 1 conviction, 1 person tried, 1 convicted; public and local nuisances, 68 cases, 50 convictions, 89 persons tried, 76 convicted. Total, 2883 cases, and 594 convictions; percentage of cases resulting in convictions to total 'cognisable' cases, 20·60: 3017 persons tried, and 1161 finally convicted; percentage of persons convicted to persons tried, 38·48.

The number of cases instituted and of persons tried and convicted in 'non-cognisable' cases during 1872 is returned as follows:

—Class I. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, etc.—Offences against public justice, 60 cases, 92 persons tried, 46 convicted; offences by public servants, 13 cases, 19 persons tried, 3 convicted; false evidence, false complaints and claims, 43 cases, 72 persons tried, 10 convicted; forgery, and fraudulently using forged documents, 6 cases, 12 persons tried, 1 convicted; offences relating to weighing and measuring, 2 cases, 2 persons tried, 2 convicted; rioting, unlawful assembly, or affray, 10 cases, 51 persons tried, 40 convicted. Class II. Serious offences against the person—Causing miscarriage, 8 cases, 2 persons tried, no conviction. Class III. Serious offences against property—Extortion, 36 cases, 20 persons tried, 5 convicted. Class IV. Minor offences against the person—Hurt, 175 cases, 149 persons tried, 80 convicted; criminal force, 1731 cases, 873 persons tried, 381 convicted. Class V. Minor offences against property—Cheating, 54 cases, 33 persons tried, 9 convicted; criminal misappropriation of property, 34 cases, 40 persons tried, 16 convicted; criminal breach of trust by public servants, bankers, etc., 7 cases, 8 persons tried, 3 convicted; simple mischief, 204 cases, 148 persons tried, 36 convicted. Class VI. Other offences not specified above—Offences relating to marriage, 74 cases, 74 persons tried, 12 convicted; criminal breach of contract of service, 2 cases, 2 persons tried, 1 convicted; defamation, 38 cases, 25 persons tried, 8 convicted; intimidation and insult, 47 cases, 20 persons tried, 12 convicted; public and local nuisances, 14 cases, 16 persons tried, 13 convicted; offences under chapters xviii., xx., xxi., and xxii., Criminal Procedure Code, 111 cases, 157 persons tried, 107 convicted; breach of law relating to Arms Act xxxi., 7 cases, 10 persons tried, 10 convicted; cattle trespass, 189 cases, 197 persons tried, 74 convicted; contempt of court, 2 cases, 2 persons tried, 2 convicted; breach of contract by workmen and labourers, 64 cases, 45 persons tried, 17 convicted; breach of Census Act, 2 cases, 3 persons tried, no conviction; breach of Ferry Law, 2 cases, 1 person tried and convicted; of Municipal Act, 1 case, 1 person tried and convicted; of *Mukhtárs* and Pleaders' Act, 1 case, 1 person tried and convicted; of Post Office Act, 1 case, 1 person tried and convicted; of Police Act, 14 cases, 22 persons tried, 19 convicted; forfeiture of recognizances by accused persons, 7 cases, 8 persons tried, and all convicted; forfeiture of recognizances by witnesses, 8 cases, 8 persons tried, and all convicted; forfeiture of surety bonds, 12 cases, 19 persons tried, 14

convicted; breach of Toll Act by the farmer of toll, 1 case, 1 person tried and convicted; vexatious and frivolous complaints, 9 cases, 9 persons tried, and all convicted. Total, 2989 cases, 2144 persons tried, and 950 convicted; proportion of persons convicted to persons tried, 44·31 per cent.

Excluding false cases, the total number of 'cognisable' and 'non-cognisable' cases investigated in Murshidábád District in 1872 was 5190, in which 2111 persons were convicted, or 1 person convicted of an offence to every 641 of the District population.

CRIMINAL CLASSES.—The District of Murshidábád has always had a bad name for robbery and other crimes of violence. The following paragraphs, in illustration of this notoriety, are quoted from the 'Report on the Police of the Lower Provinces of Bengal for 1872:'—

'Murshidábád had more cases of *dakáití* during the past year than any other District in Bengal, not excepting even Hazáribágh; and yet, for its size, Murshidábád has a very large number of police stations, and a force much stronger in proportion than any other District. In 1867, the cases of *dakáití* were 9 in number; in 1868, they were 11; in 1869, they rose to 17; in 1870, they were again 11; in 1871, they rose to 20; and in 1872, to 29. In this last year the amount of property plundered amounted to Rs. 4,737 or £473, 14s. od., giving an average of less than Rs. 200 or £20 for each case. In some cases the amount plundered was very small. Thus, in eight cases of the 24, the total property plundered amounted only to Rs. 39 or £3, 18s. od. Of the 24 cases, two were merely attempts, the *dakáits* having been driven off by the villagers without having been able to obtain any booty. In only one case was anything like extreme violence used. Of the total number, fourteen took place in the Headquarters Subdivision, which is much the largest and most densely populated, six in the Kándí, two in the Lálbágh, and two in the Jangipur Subdivisions. The largest number occurred in the Barwá *tháná*, immediately to the south of Barhampur; but even in the *dakáitís* committed within the same *tháná*, there was no reason to suspect that the perpetrators were concerned in more than one *dakáití*, except in one case where two adjoining houses were plundered at the same time. The Magistrate, therefore, does not believe that there is any class of professional *dakáits* in the District, and is of opinion that these *dakáitís* are got up by the local bad characters, and very frequently perpetrated with the

connivance or active assistance of the village *chaukídárs*. In a good many of the cases during the year, *chaukídárs* were implicated; and in others, their conduct in being absent from their villages on the night of occurrence, or their subsequent delay in giving information, was highly suspicious. Many of the cases, too, though *dakáití* according to the definition of that offence contained in the Penal Code, were not such as were called *dakáitís* in the old days; and the fears of the inmates of the plundered house have not improbably magnified considerably the number of persons engaged in the offences. The police were successful in detecting 15 cases, and final convictions were obtained in 8 cases, while 3 remained under inquiry at the close of the year. Out of 123 persons brought to trial charged with *dakáití*, only 27 were convicted; while the percentage of stolen property recovered amounted to only 2·2. The Magistrate believes, however, that the police did their best to check and detect these serious offences; and considering the difficulties of detection, and of convincing a jury of the guilt of accused persons, he thinks that the results were fairly satisfactory. The perpetrators of *dakáitís* are generally members of the lower classes of Muhammadans, and of the inferior castes of Hindus, such as Goálás, Bágdís, Doms, Háris, Chámárs, etc. One of the cases of *dakáití*, which was not otherwise important, resulted in a murder; the owner of the house attacked received a blow on the head, from which he died. Since the close of the year (1872) five men were convicted for this crime.'

In subsequent years the number of *dakáitís* has still continued to show a formidable increase. In 1873 there were 38 'true' cases; and in 1874 they rose to no less than 58, or nearly five times as many as the average of the four years 1867-1870. The criminality of the cases continued to be of a petty character, and the aggregate amount of property plundered was still small. The Magistrate maintains his opinion that 'gang-robbery by professional *dakáitís* is unknown in the District, and nearly all the *dakáitís* may be attributed to bad characters of the adjacent villages, assisted in some cases by persons from Murshidábád city. The District has always been swarming with bad characters, over whose movements the police have not sufficient authority.' In 1874 it was found necessary to adopt special measures to check the progressive growth of this crime. Six experimental police outposts were established in the localities of worst reputation, but too late in that year to

afford any immediate criterion of their efficacy. Out of the 38 cases in 1873, 26 occurred in that half of the District known as the Rárh, which lies to the west of the Bhágirathí, and of these, 5 were in the one *tháná* of Bharatpur; and out of the 58 cases in 1874, no less than 43 occurred in the Rárh, of which as many as 14 were in Bharatpur. In explanation of this remarkable localisation of crime, the following curious theory is given in the Police Report for 1873:—'The prevalent idea among the people themselves, and also among those police officers who have had most experience of the District, is that the reason why *dakáitís* are more frequent in the western part is, because the houses there are better built of stiff clay, which becomes so hard as either to defy the operations of the ordinary burglar, or to cause him to make so much noise in digging into the house as to rouse the inmates, and defeat his purpose. Consequently, those bad characters who elsewhere confine themselves to mere housebreaking, are in the habit of combining in this portion of the District into *dakáití* gangs. This view is to a certain extent justified by the criminal statistics of the Bágri, or eastern half of the District, where, owing to the nature of the soil, and the customs of the people, the houses are built of softer clay or with only mat walls. The area of the Bágri is somewhat the smaller of the two, but in 1873 it showed only 12 cases of *dakáití* against 26 in the Rárh, and 400 of housebreaking against 240.' The cause of the increasing prevalence of *dakáití* in the same localities during 1874 is plausibly attributed to the scarcity of the crops in that year, which was felt with greatest severity in the western half of the District. In the Report for 1874, it is noticed with satisfaction that 'resistance to *dakáits* is becoming less uncommon, and has been in several cases offered successfully. In these cases rewards have been given, by way of encouragement.'

Concerning cases of ordinary theft, in which also there had been a considerable increase, the Police Report of 1872 contains the following remarks:—'Apart from the addition to Murshidábád District of the two *thánás* of Rámpur Hat and Nalhátí, the increase in the number of offences against property is to be attributed to the impoverishment caused by the inundation of 1871 over a large part of the District, which affected many of the poorest; and to the steady rise in the prices of food staples, by which the tolerably well-to-do cultivators profit, but which presses hardly on the lower classes of day-labourers and others, whose wages have not risen in

proportion to the rise of prices. It is to these classes that most of the perpetrators of theft, burglaries, and *dakáitís* belong; and as a taste for intoxicating liquors is apparently spreading among all classes of people in the District, it is extremely probable that men who have it not within their means to obtain the liquors or drugs that they desire from the proceeds of honest labour, resort to nefarious courses in order to gratify their desire. Another cause for the increase is stated to be the increased activity of the police officers of all ranks, which led to more cases being reported than in preceding years. The Magistrate believes that very few crimes now remain unreported, and that intimation is generally given of even the pettiest thefts.'

'Cattle theft for the purpose of extorting money exists to a large extent in the District of Murshidábád. The inundation of 1871 caused a great mortality among cattle, especially in the south and south-east of the District, bordering on Nadiyá, where the same scarcity prevailed. The demand for them rose considerably in these parts; and, as a matter of course, cattle-stealing also increased. Towards the end of the year (1872) the officer in charge of Kátwá Subdivision, in Bardwán, informed the Magistrate of Murshidábád that certain villages on the boundaries of the two Districts were infested by persons who made their livelihood by this crime. The Assistant-Superintendent of police was accordingly deputed to make inquiries on the spot, and the result was the arrest of some persons implicated in eight cases. A special report was made to Government on the subject, and it is hoped that the practice of cattle-lifting has now suffered a check. The total number of offences of this class that occurred over the whole District was 73; of which 24 were in the Kándí Subdivision, chiefly in *tháná* Bharatpur, which borders on Bardwán, and is only separated from Nadiyá by the Bhágirathí river.'

JAILS.—Murshidábád District contains one jail, which is at Barhampur; and three Subdivisional lock-ups at Lálbágh, Jangipur, and Rámpur Hát, in which short-term prisoners undergo their sentences. There is also a fourth lock-up, at Headquarters, known as the Chaltiá lock-up, which is solely used as a place of detention for under-trial prisoners.

The District jail used to be situated at Máidapur, the site of the old civil station, about four miles distant from the present civil offices at Barhampur. Apart from the absence of proper supervision

caused by this inconvenient separation, the Máidapur jail was also found to be very unhealthy. The situation is low, and the wards were saturated with damp; while the natural drainage was such, that, during flood time, water poured into the building from all sides. In 1871-72 it was resolved to remove the jail to Barhampur itself; and the new site chosen was the former hospital of the European troops, within the cantonments, and on the banks of the Bhágirathí. It was anticipated that this change would have a beneficial effect as regards discipline as well as health. The process of transforming the selected building was commenced in 1873, and had not been completed by the end of 1874. The labour of the convicts was utilized to as great an extent as possible. In 1873 the charges for building were returned at £1290, 18s. 0d.; and in 1874 at £1775, 2s. 0d. The great bulk of the prisoners, however, 198 in number, were transferred in August of the former year. In the Jails Report for 1874 it is stated that 'much has been done to improve the jail during the past year. The boundary wall, which was only seven feet high, has been raised to fifteen feet. The inside walls, separating the different classes of prisoners, were completed. Six new solitary cells were built, and the greater portion of the jail buildings thoroughly repaired. When all the works sanctioned and now in progress are carried out, this will be one of the best jails in Lower Bengal.' It is still too early to draw any conclusions regarding the sanitary results of the change. But it may be stated that in 1872, before the change took place, the death-rate was 5·10 per cent., as opposed to a general average throughout Bengal of 5·34; in 1873 the death-rate was only 0·68, the lowest in all Bengal, where the average was 4·85; in 1874 it rose again to 4·15, against an average of 5·59.

There has been a notable increase during the last few years in the number of civil prisoners confined in the jail. In 1872, the civil prisoners admitted during the year were only 22; in 1873, this number increased to 50; and in 1874, it further rose to 63, or an increase in two years of nearly threefold. For this increase an adequate but most curious explanation is given in the Jails Report for the two latter years: 'In 1873, a wealthy merchant at Jiáganj fell dangerously ill, and his sons announced their intention of releasing on a certain date all those who were incarcerated on account of debt, for the benefit of their suffering parent. The news spread all over the District, and debtors flocked into the jail from every

part. No less than twenty-two prisoners were admitted in the course of four days in August. Excluding those who manifestly came in consequence of this announcement, the number of civil prisoners would be reduced to twenty-eight, which is only six more than the admissions of the previous year.' Though it does not appear that the sons, on the death of their father, redeemed their promise, at least in the sense in which it was generally understood, yet a precisely similar story is told for 1874. 'In that year occurred the marriage ceremony of Dhanpat Sinh Bahádur, the wealthy banker of Azímganj; and it was anticipated throughout the District that he would follow the example of his brother, who, on the occasion of his son's marriage, had released all the civil prisoners in the jail by paying their debts for them. Creditors, accordingly, began to press their debtors, until they drove them into prison. As soon, however, as it was discovered that the banker had no intention of paying off other people's debts on this grand scale, the subsistence allowance for the civil prisoners ceased to be paid, and their number fell off as rapidly as it had risen.'

The Lálbágh lock-up is situated only six miles from the Barhampur jail, whither are transferred all convicts sentenced to a longer term of imprisonment than seven days. The building is divided into two compartments for the male and female prisoners, by means of a wooden railing. It is surrounded by a high wall, and freely ventilated, and there are two cook-sheds attached. The only penal labour which can be exacted is the preparation of *surkhí* or mortar-dust from bricks, for which a *dhenkí* or pounder has been provided; but it can never be expected that such work will prove very remunerative.

At Jangipur, the erection of a new lock-up has been sanctioned by Government. The old building was described in 1873 as too small and ill ventilated. The convicts are employed in spinning jute and grinding flour. Their labour is fairly profitable, and in 1874 resulted in a net receipt of £7, 17s. 6d. The total expenditure for that year amounted to £124, 1s. 1d., of which £34, 2s. 2d. was the cost of rations. Prisoners sentenced to more than fifteen days' imprisonment are at once transferred to Barhampur under escort.

The lock-up at Rámpur Hát was described in 1873 as only a temporary structure, to be replaced by a brick building in connection with the new Subdivisional offices. Fifteen short-term prisoners

underwent their sentences here during that year. Convicts sentenced for more than fourteen days are sent off to the jail as soon as an escort can be provided. They are generally conveyed by road, as transport by rail is found too expensive. The quantity of flour ground by the prisoners during the year was a little less than 9 *maunds*, or about 6 hundredweights, the sale of which yielded a net profit of 17s. 8d.

The Chaltiá lock-up at Barhampur is used solely as a place of detention for under-trial prisoners, whose cases are pending before the criminal courts of the Subdivision or the Sessions. The only convicts it contains are men transferred from the jail, for employment as cooks and sweepers. The building is in all respects adequate for its purpose. It stands in a safely enclosed compound, and is divided into four compartments. The accommodation is, as a rule, ample; the compartments are lofty and well ventilated; the compound itself is well drained, and contains a masonry well. Convicted prisoners are transferred to the jail on the day of their sentence, or at furthest on the day following. No work of any kind is done in the lock-up, except by the cooks and sweepers.

JAIL STATISTICS.—In 1857-58, the first year for which materials are available, the daily average number of prisoners in the Murshidábád jail was 184; the total number of civil, criminal, and under-trial prisoners admitted during the year being 1163. The discharges were as follow:—Transferred, 214; released, 810; escaped, 4; died, 15: total, 1043. In 1860-61, the jail returns show a daily average number of 151 prisoners, the total admissions during the year being 1196. The discharges were:—Transferred, 241; released, 892; escaped, 3; died, 5; executed, 2: total, 1143. In 1870, the daily average jail population was 227, the total number of prisoners admitted during the year being 1335. The discharges were:—Transferred, 133; released, 1167; escaped, 14; died, 32: total, 1346. In 1857-58, the proportion of prisoners admitted to the jail hospital amounted to 169·02 per cent., and the deaths to 8·15 per cent. of the average jail population; in 1860-61, the admissions to hospital amounted to 574·82 per cent., and the deaths to 3·31 per cent. of the average jail population; in 1870, the admissions to the jail hospital amounted to 103·52 per cent., and the deaths to 14·09 per cent. of the average jail population.

The average cost of maintenance per prisoner in Murshidábád jail, including rations, establishment, hospital charges, clothing, con-

tingencies, and all other charges except the prison police guards, is returned as follows:—In 1854-55 it amounted to Rs. 38. 4. 10 or £3, 16s. 7d. per head; in 1857-58, to Rs. 39. 7. 6 or £3, 18s. 11d. per head; in 1860-61, to Rs. 43. 8. 1 or £4, 7s. 0d. per head; and in 1870, to Rs. 39. 6. 5 or £3, 18s. 9d. per head. The cost of the jail police guard in 1870 amounted to an average of Rs. 15. 8. 0 or £1, 11s. 0d. per head, making a gross charge to Government of Rs. 54. 14. 5 or £5, 9s. 9d. per prisoner. The Inspector-General of Jails, in his Report for 1870, returns the total cost in that year of the Murshidábád jail and the lock-ups at Lálbágh, Kándí, and Jangipur, including the prison police guard, but excluding cost of alterations and repairs, at Rs. 10,092. 10. 3, or £1009, 5s. 3d. Excluding the cost of the jail police guard, which is included in the general police budget of the District, the cost of the jail amounted to Rs. 7239. 3. 6, or £723, 18s. 5d.

In 1854-55, the receipts arising from the sale of jail manufactures, together with the value of stock remaining on hand at the end of the year, amounted to £427, 2s. 4d., and the charges to £215, 6s. 4d., showing an excess of receipts over charges, or profit, of £211, 16s. 0d.; the average earnings of each prisoner employed on manufactures amounted to Rs. 21. 6. 3, or £2, 2s. 9d. In 1857-58, the total receipts amounted to £17, 17s. 2d., and the charges to 7d., leaving a profit of £17, 16s. 7d.; average earnings by each prisoner engaged in manufacture, Rs. 89. 2. 6, or £8, 18s. 3¾d. In 1860-61, the receipts amounted to £87, 11s. 4d., and the charges to £52, 4s. 8d. leaving a surplus or profit of £35, 6s. 8d.; average earning by each prisoner engaged in manufactures, Rs. 7. 5. 9, or 14s. 8½d. In 1870, the total credits arising from jail manufactures amounted to £285, 16s. 8d., and the total debits to £164, 12s. 2d., leaving a surplus or profit of £121, 4s. 6d.; average earnings by each prisoner engaged in manufactures, Rs. 22. 0. 8., or £2, 4s. 1d. Deducting the profits derived from prison labour from the total cost of the jail, the net cost of the Murshidábád jail and lock-ups in 1870 amounted to £602, 13s. 11d.

In 1872, the statistics of Murshidábád jail were as follow:—The daily average number of civil prisoners in jail was 1·30; under-trial prisoners, 63·33; labouring convicts, 162·67; non-labouring convicts, 21·69: total, 248·99, of whom 19·77 were females. These figures give one prisoner always in jail to every 5436 of the total District population, and one female to every 35,826 of the total

female population. The total cost of Murshidábád jail in 1872, excluding public works and manufacture department, amounted to £1047, 14s. 10d., or an average of Rs. 41. 10. 8, or £4, 3s. 4d. per head of the jail population. The financial results of jail manufactures during the year were not satisfactory; the total credits, including stock remaining on hand at the end of the year, amounted to £656, 1s. 9d., and the total debits to £537, 7s. 7d., leaving an excess of credits over debits, or profit, of £118, 14s. 2d. The actual money cost of the manufacture department during the year amounted to £433, 17s. 9d., and the cash remitted to the treasury to £560, 3s. 2d., leaving an actual cash profit of £126, 5s. 5d., or an average earning of Rs. 14. 8. 7 or £1, 9s. 1d. by each prisoner engaged in manufactures. Out of 162·67 labouring prisoners, 86·91 were employed in manufactures; the remainder were engaged in jail duties, or were in hospital, or were weak and old and unable to work. The prisoners actually engaged in manufactures were distributed as follows:—Gunny weaving, ·08; gardening, 8·02; cloth-weaving, 2·22; brickmaking, etc., 50·31; bamboo, rattan, and reed works, ·84; oil-pressing, etc., 10·07; manufacturing string and twine, ·22; flour grinding, 3·26; stone breaking, 1·44; carpentry, 1·00; rice husking, 2·90; grinding pulses, 2·43; tailoring, ·92; miscellaneous, 3·20: total, 86·91.

EDUCATION.—Murshidábád District is divided for educational purposes into four circles, which, in the year 1871, were made coincident with the four Subdivisions. In the same year, the head-quarters of the Inspector of the Rájsháhí Circle were moved to Barhampur. The two most prominent educational institutions in the District are the Barhampur College, and the College and School in Murshidábád city, supported out of the Nizámat funds. The Barhampur College will be fully described in subsequent paragraphs. The Nizámat College, a fine building in the north of the city near the river, erected at a cost of £7,800, is limited exclusively to the education of the relatives of the Nawáb Názim. The Revenue-Surveyor, in 1857, stated that a principal and four masters were attached to this college, who taught chiefly the English, Persian, and Urdu languages, mathematics, writing, and drawing. There were at that time about 28 pupils. The Nizámat school is an entirely free school; and, according to the Inspector, its charitable provisions have a bad influence in lowering the discipline in all the neighbouring schools, and also in inducing the wealthy men of

the District to pay lavishly the fees of pupils in other schools, regardless of efficiency. According to the Education Department, the vernacular spoken in the District is Hindí and Bengalí. Murshidábád is the only District in Bengal proper to which both these languages are assigned, in consequence, presumably, of the large up-country population which it contains. According to the Revenue-Surveyor, 'Bengalí is the chief medium of communication between all classes, Hindu and Musalmán, and undoubtedly the language of the District. It is used in all business transactions, and in the villages and among the lower orders scarcely any other language is ever heard. The educated and better class of Hindus understand Urdu, if spoken to them, and in and about the towns converse fluently in it. In wealthy Musalmán families, Urdu is used in familiar conversation.'

THE BARHAMPUR COLLEGE was founded in 1853; but up to 1861 no final arrangement had been arrived at for the erection of a special building, though nearly £4000 had been raised for the purpose by local subscription. It was intended, from the first, to supply the wants of the several Districts of the Rájsháhí Educational Circle in higher English instruction. In 1857, the establishment consisted of a principal, eight masters, and six native teachers; the total number of pupils was 238, of whom only 14 belonged to the upper department, and the remainder were in the collegiate school. At that time the period of attendance was limited to three years, but the success of the examination system of the Calcutta University led to an extension of this period. From January 1866, a fourth-year class was opened at Barhampur, as well as at the other Government colleges outside Calcutta. Additional professors were required, and the college curriculum was brought up to the level of the B.A. examination of the University. A special Law department had already been attached to the college. This change, however, was not found to be productive of any advantage to counterbalance the augmented expenditure. In 1864-65 the number of students had been as high as 77, but since that date they have steadily declined. In 1868-69 the numbers were 67, which fell to 56 in 1869-70, to 41 in 1870-71, and to 21 in 1871-72. In this last year, it appears that there were only three third-year and three fourth-year students, and that the cost to Government for maintaining the staff required for these six students was no less than £1300 per annum. The average cost of each pupil attending the college during that year

was £99, 4s. od., towards which Government contributed £93, 6s. od. per head. Taking the higher classes only, each student cost £344 per annum; while the total expended on each, from the date of his entrance until he attained his B.A. degree, was about £1400. It was also evident that the efficiency of the college was decreasing together with its numbers, for in the previous year not a single candidate had been successful for his degree. In consideration of these figures, which are taken from the Bengal Administration Report for 1871-72, it was resolved by the Lieutenant-Governor to abolish the two higher classes of the Barhampur college, so that the instruction given should be limited to the First Arts course. It was thought, also, that the flourishing colleges at Calcutta and Húglí were sufficiently close, both by rail and river, to supply the wants of all those in Murshidábád District who wished to reach the higher grades of university education. By this measure, which took effect in the beginning of 1872, the college was practically reduced to the level of a high school, such as the institution in the neighbouring District of Rájsháhí at Rámpur Beauleah, though the office of principal is maintained. The appointments of a professor and an assistant-professor were abolished; several minor reductions were made, and the Law department, owing to special reasons, will shortly share the same fate as the Upper Arts classes. The financial result of these changes was, that while in 1870-71 the Government paid £2993, 9s. od., in 1873-74 the total cost to Government was only £1875, 2s. od. There was, however, no improvement in other respects. The average daily attendance in 1873-74 was only 17, which makes the cost to Government of each pupil to be as much as £110, 6s. od., as against an average for Bengal generally of £26, 18s. od. Out of 10 students sent up in December 1873 for the First Arts examination, only 4 passed, of whom none were placed in the first division. About the same time that the reductions already mentioned were made, various minor improvements were effected. Two teachers of drawing and surveying were appointed; the native surgeon in charge of the college was appointed to lecture on chemistry and botany; an outsiders' class was opened to train candidates for the Government service, in which engineering also is taught; and a gymnasium and a riding class have been opened. The following paragraphs are taken from the Report of the Principal for 1872-73, to illustrate the general condition of the institution of late years.

'GENERAL DEPARTMENT.—The number of students at present stands thus:—First-year class, 12; second-year class, 12; total, 24. I fear that there is little prospect of any increase in our numbers, until the establishment of the projected Hostel provides a comfortable home in this sickly place for students coming from the surrounding Districts. The social status of the parents and guardians is as follows:—*Zamíndárs*, *tálukdárs*, and persons of independent income, 12; professional persons, 8; Government servants and pensioners, 4. Nine students presented themselves for the intermediate Arts examination. Of these, only 3 passed,—1 in the second, and 2 in the third grade. On the result of the annual examination, two undergraduates were allowed to retain their scholarships, and one, unable from severe illness to attend, on the satisfactory progress made during the session. The total cost of the General department of the college has been Rs. 18,948. 15. 0 (or £1894, 17s. 10½d.), to credit of which is the sum of Rs. 1335 (or £133, 10s. 0d.), collected as fees; the net cost to Government being Rs. 17,613. 15. 0 (or £1761, 7s. 10½d.), or on the average of the year's students, Rs. 800. 10. 1 (or £80, 1s. 3d.) per head per annum.

'LAW DEPARTMENT.—There are only 14 students in this department at present, all studying for the pleadership examination. One candidate went up to the last examination for the degree of Bachelor in Law, and passed in the second division. At the Licence examination (the last, it is probable, that will be held), four candidates presented themselves, of whom three passed. The routine of studies for the current session has been so arranged as to fall in with the course in Law for the civil service class, and provision has been made for so much of the latter course as is special. The social status of the law students is thus shown:—*Zamíndárs*, *tálukdárs*, and persons of independent income, 5; professional persons, 3; Government servants and pensioners, 6. The cost of the department for the first three-quarters of the financial year was Rs. 1506. 10. 8 (or £150, 13s. 4d.), and its income from fees Rs. 855 (or £85, 10s. 0d.), showing a net cost to Government of Rs. 651. 10. 8 (or £65, 3s. 4d.). The fees in the last quarter of the year amounted to Rs. 160 (or £16), which sum has been paid to the Lecturer.

'COLLEGIATE SCHOOL.—The numbers in the school department continue pretty steady, notwithstanding the excessive illness of the

last two months. The year closed with 180 students, against 183 the previous year. The entrance class is very large. It contains at present 46 students; and it is probable that, but for the extreme unhealthiness of the season, the numbers would have been even larger. The prevalence of small-pox is unprecedented, and cholera also has had its victims. The panic caused by the former, raging as it did in the immediate vicinity of the college building, at one time seriously affected our attendance. It is not likely, however, that the entrance class will be so full after this session, in consequence of the exclusion of text-books in English literature from the University examination. The results of the entrance examination have been satisfactory. Of 23 students who presented themselves for examination (2 being kept away by illness), 12 passed; of whom 4 were placed in the first division, 7 in the second, and 1 in the third division. The examination of the other classes of the school, conducted by myself and the officers of my staff, on the whole gave me satisfaction. There were 1 senior and 5 junior scholarships awarded to students of this institution, on the result of the last University examination. The former was made tenable at the Presidency College, and the latter here; but 3 of these have since been transferred, 1 to the Presidency, and 2 to the Civil Engineering College. The social status of the parents and guardians is as follows:—*Zamíndárs, tálukdárs* and persons of independent income, 41; merchants, bankers, *baniás*, and brokers, 11; professional persons, 54; Government servants and pensioners, 61; shopkeepers, 6; others, 7. The cost of the collegiate school has been Rs. 10,834. 10. 10 (or £1083, 9s. 4½d.), and the fees realized Rs. 4545. 4. 0 (or £454, 10s. 0½d.). The actual cost to Government has, therefore, been Rs. 6289. 6. 10 (or £628, 18s. 10¼d.), or Rs. 36. 15. 11 (£3, 14s. 0d.) per head per annum.

'DRAWING AND SURVEYING.—I am not able to show the total expenditure under this heading. The amount drawn for establishment and contingencies is Rs. 783. 14. 6 (£78, 7s. 9¾d.), to credit of which is Rs. 28. 7. 6 (£2, 16s. 11¼d.) realized from the sale of drawing materials, and Rs. 129 (£12, 18s. 0d.) from outsiders' fees.

'RIDING.—The cost of the riding class was Rs. 127. 2. 10 (£12. 14s. 4¼d.), leaving a surplus of Rs. 72. 13. 2 (£7, 5s. 7¾d.) from the grant on this account, reckoned from December last.

'GENERAL COST.—The charges of the year in the several de-

partments, inclusive of the charges for drawing, surveying, and riding, aggregate Rs. 32,361. 5. 10 (£3236, 2s. 8¾d.), against which is the sum of Rs. 7024. 4. 0 (£702, 8s. 6d.) realized from fees, inclusive of Rs. 129 (£12, 18s. 0d.), fees paid by the outsiders' class, and of Rs. 28. 7. 6 (£2, 16s. 11¼d.) from the sale of drawing materials. The actual net cost therefore to Government of this institution, in all its departments, is Rs. 25,308, 10. 4 (£2530, 17s. 3½d.).

'THE HOSTEL.—In August last the Lieutenant-Governor, during his visit to Barhampur, in answer to a deputation of influential natives, sanctioned the outlay of Rs. 6000 (£600) and the acquisition of a piece of land for a hostel or boarding-house for students, on condition of an equal sum of money being raised by the community for the construction of the building. The subscriptions for this purpose, already announced, amount to Rs. 8152 (£815, 4s. 0d.), and further donations are expected.'

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.—Education has rapidly diffused itself in Murshidábád. In the fourteen years between 1856-57 and 1870-71, the number of schools was multiplied no less than twenty-four times, and the number of pupils increased six-fold. In the year 1856-57, there were only 6 Government and aided schools in the whole District, which number increased to 15 in 1860-61, and to 146 in 1870-71. During the same period, the total number of pupils rose from 717 in 1856-57 to 1028 in 1860-61, and to 4682 in 1870-71. This is altogether independent of 168 private and unaided schools returned by the Inspector in 1871, attended by an estimated number of 2974 pupils, but not under inspection by the Educational Department, and regarding which no details are available. Among the Government and aided schools, the greatest growth has been in the aided vernacular schools, which have increased from 2 in number in 1856-57 to 113 in 1870-71, the total number of pupils having risen from 220 to 3164 in the same period. That proportion of the cost of education in Government and aided schools which is defrayed by local contributions, schooling fees, etc., has considerably increased of late years. In 1856-57, out of a total cost of £2878, 18s. 7d., the State contribution amounted to £2523, 17s. 1d., or 87 per cent. of the whole; in 1860-61, the expenditure on Government and aided schools amounted to £2982, 7s. 11d., of which the State defrayed £2149, 17s. 11d., or 72 per cent.; in 1870-71, the total cost of these schools increased to £9727, 10s. 5d.,

while the amount defrayed by Government was £6555, 12s. 6d., or 67 per cent. The amount derived from fees, subscriptions, donations, etc. in the Government and aided schools amounted to £355, 1s. 6d. in 1856-57, £826, 10s. 9d. in 1860-61, and £3182, 2s. 7d. in 1870-71. The following comparative tables, compiled from the Reports of the Director of Public Instruction for the years 1856-57, 1860-61, and 1870-71, exhibit the number of Government and aided schools in Murshidábád District in each of these years, the number and religion of pupils attending them, the total cost of education, together with the amount contributed by Government, and that derived from fees, subscriptions, etc.—See pp. 222, 223.

SIR GEORGE CAMPBELL'S REFORM, whereby the indigenous *páthsálás* or village schools were admitted to the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules, came into operation in the latter half of the educational year 1871-72. Though village schools had previously been not altogether unrecognised in Murshidábád, yet the impulse given by the new scheme was immediately productive of great results. The table on page 224 shows, in a comparative form, the progress made during 1871-73, the first two years of the working of the *páthsálá* system. It will be seen that the number of schools of all classes, including the unaided schools, increased from 317 to 406, or 28 per cent.; the total number of scholars from 7692 to 11,537, or 50 per cent.; and the average attendance, by far the most valuable criterion, from 3562 to 8475, or 138 per cent. In the same period of two years, the Government grant was augmented by just £1100, and local sources of income—fees, fines, and subscriptions—by nearly £2000. The increase in the number of pupils has, of course, been most marked in the case of primary schools. It was found, indeed, in 1872-73, that the competition of the improved *páthsálás* injuriously affected the average attendance at the aided middle schools, a circumstance which seems to indicate that the curriculum of study at these two classes of schools is not now very wide apart. It is satisfactory to find that the proportion of Musalmán pupils is steadily growing. In 1871-72, the percentage of Muhammadans in the whole was 14·3, which had risen to 26·0 in the following year. In the total population of the District, the Muhammadans number 44·6 per cent. In 1871-72, out of a total of 163 teachers, only 11 were Musalmáns; whereas in 1872-73, out of 528, the Musalmán teachers amounted to 69. Both these facts

[*Sentence continued on page* 226.

Statistics of Government and Aided Schools in Murshidabad District, for the Years 1856–57, 1860–61, and 1870–71.

Classification of Schools.	Number of Schools.			Pupils.											
				Hindus.			Muhammadans.			Others.			Total.		
	1856-57	1860-61	1870-71	1856-57	1860-61	1870-71	1856-57	1860-61	1870-71	1856-57	1860-61	1870-71	1856-57	1860-61	1870-71
Government College,	1	1	1	14	16	41	...	...	...	...	...	...	14	16	41
Government English Schools,	2	1	1	381	202	164	13	14	11	6	3	2	400	219	177
Government Vernacular Schools,	1	2	3	80	143	237	3	1	12	...	...	1	83	144	250
Barhampur College Law Class,	...	...	1	...	...	30	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	31
Barhampur Training School,	...	...	1	...	...	26	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	26
Aided English Schools,	...	6	23[1]	...	334	821	...	7	58	...	...	...	...	341	917
Aided Vernacular Schools,	2	5	113[2]	213	269	2486	7	39	508	...	...	...	220	308	3164
Aided Girls' Schools,	...	...	3	...	...	76	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	76
Total,	6	15	146	688	964	3881	23	61	590	6	3	3	717	1028	4682

[1] No details given of the Pupils in one of these schools, the average (38) is included in the totals.

[2] No details given of the Pupils in eight of these schools, the average (170) is included in the totals.

STATISTICS OF GOVERNMENT AND AIDED SCHOOLS IN MURSHIDABAD DISTRICT, FOR THE YEARS 1856–57, 1860–61, AND 1870–71—*continued:*

CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOOLS.	Receipts.									Total Expenditure.		
	Government Grant.			Fees, Subscriptions, etc.								
	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.				1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.				£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Government College,	1099 8 8	770 9 4	2993 9 2	14 16 0	15 6 7	302 18 0				1114 4 8	785 15 11	3296 7 2
Government English Schools,	1389 13 6	1047 12 3	1344 7 2	323 11 0	406 1 9	391 16 0				1713 4 6	1453 14 0	1736 3 2
Government Vernacular Schools,	23 4 8	39 14 11	62 19 6	6 7 4	15 1 7	58 19 5				29 12 0	54 16 6	121 18 11
Barhampur College Law Class,	...	...	26 10 0	...	...	213 10 0				...	...	240 0 0
Barhampur Training School,	...	...	595 14 2	...	...	26 5 6				...	...	621 19 8
Aided English Schools,	...	220 11 5	697 0 1	...	294 10 1	1194 17 1				...	513 8 9	1881 7 5
Aided Vernacular Schools,	11 10 3	71 10 0	787 14 5	10 7 2	95 10 9	921 14 7				21 17 5	174 12 9	1709 14 5
Aided Girls' Schools,	...	...	47 18 0	...	...	72 2 0				...	...	119 19 8
Total,	2523 17 1	2149 17 11	6555 12 6	355 1 6	826 10 9	3182 2 7				2878 18 7	2982 7 11	9727 10 5

Comparative Statement Illustrating the State of Education in Murshidabad District, in the Two Years 1871–72 and 1872–73 (Exclusive of the Barhampur College).

Classification of Schools.	Number of Schools.		Number of Pupils on 31st March.		Average Attendance.		Expenditure.					
							Government.		Other Sources.		Total.	
	1871–72	1872–73	1871–72	1872–73	1871–72	1872–73	1871–72.	1872–73.	1871–72.	1872–73.	1871–72.	1872–73.
							£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Higher Schools.												
Government,	1	1	187	218	133	144	1401 17 1	2455 10 1	458 18 0	689 10 6	1860 15 1	3145 0 7
Unaided,	3	4	482	572	399	411	...	...	2100 1 6	4064 11 5	2100 1 6	4064 11 5
Total,	4	5	669	790	532	555	1401 17 1	2455 10 1	2558 19 6	4754 1 11	3960 16 7	7209 12 0
Middle Schools.												
Government,	2	2	194	186	135	128	53 11 11	47 12 0	66 8 10	59 9 3	120 0 9	107 1 3
Aided,	62	49	1757	1807	1369	1278	1031 10 2	814 15 7	663 13 0	1353 16 1	1695 3 2	2168 11 8
Unaided,	2	3	102	176	62	100	...	...	1652 3 2	268 5 10	1652 3 2	268 5 10
Total,	66	54	2053	2169	1566	1506	1085 2 1	862 7 7	2382 5 0	1681 11 2	3467 7 1	2543 18 9
Primary Schools.												
Government,	1	1	39	32	34	25	12 0 0	13 14 0	9 0 0	4 2 0	21 0 0	17 16 0
Aided,	74	248	1773	6198	1302	4658	369 18 8	524 18 9	428 11 0	678 8 6	798 9 8	1203 7 3
Unaided,	166	92	2956	2179	...	1624	...	...	16 12 6	250 6 8	16 12 6	250 6 8
Total,	241	341	4768	8409	1336	6307	381 18 8	538 12 9	454 3 6	932 17 2	836 2 2	1471 9 11
Normal School.												
Government,	1	1	84	75	43	56	491 12 7	627 19 9	137 2 7	48 12 0	628 15 2	676 11 9
Girls' Schools.												
Aided,	3	3	100	76	71	48	65 14 0	59 16 0	64 2 0	74 12 0	129 16 0	134 8 0
Unaided,	2	2	18	18	14	3	...	...	...	21 12 0	...	21 12 0
Total,	5	5	118	94	85	51	65 14 0	59 16 0	64 2 0	96 4 0	129 16 0	156 0 0
Grand Total,	317	406	7692	11537	3562	8475	3426 4 5	4544 6 2	5596 12 7	7513 6 3	9022 17 0	12,057 12 5

TABLE SHOWING THE CREED AND CASTE OF PUPILS IN THE SCHOOLS OF MURSHIDABAD DISTRICT, IN THE YEAR 1872–73.

CLASS OF SCHOOL.	HINDUS.										MUHAMMADANS.			CHRISTIANS.	GRAND TOTAL.
	Bráhmans.	Khatris.	Baidyás.	Káyasths.	Nabasaks.	Kaibarttas.	Subarnabaniks.	Other Castes.	Doms, etc.	Total.	Shiás.	Sunis.	Total.		
Higher, . .	259	21	33	235	37	14	24	43	1	667	70	40	110	13	790
Middle English, .	309	23	27	148	120	21	27	109	...	784	27	44	71	...	855
Middle Vernacular,	412	24	33	195	233	83	50	131	3	1164	7	143	150	...	1314
Primary, . .	1031	84	43	442	1754	814	249	1170	155	5742	200	2463	2663	4	8409
Girls' School, .	20	1	4	42	8	4	...	1	...	80	...	14	14	...	94
Normal, . .	32	...	1	12	9	9	...	5	1	69	...	6	6	...	75
Total, . .	2063	153	141	1074	2161	945	350	1459	160	8506	304	2710	3014	17	11,537

Sentence continued from page 221.]
indicate that the new system has really reached the classes for which it was designed; for in Murshidábád, as elsewhere in Bengal, the Muhammadans predominate in the lowest stratum of the population. With regard to the creed and caste of the pupils generally, the Education Report for 1872-73 supplies the table printed on p. 225.

The actual extension of education caused by Sir G. Campbell's reform may best be illustrated by comparing the total number of pupils and schools in 1870-71, the year before the new system was started, with the corresponding numbers in 1873-74, by which date the system may be regarded as being in complete working order. In 1870-71, excluding the Barhampur College, the total number of schools known to the Education Department was 145, attended by 4641 pupils. In 1873-74, the number of schools was 458, or an increase of more than three-fold; and the number of pupils was 12,674, or an increase of nearly three-fold. In the latter year, the proportion of schools to the total population of the District was ·033 per cent., and the average number of square miles to each school was 5·65.

EDUCATION.—In illustration of the general condition of secondary and primary education in the District, the following paragraphs are quoted from the Report of Public Instruction for the year 1872-73:—

'HIGHER SCHOOLS.—Excluding the Nizámat College, there are four such schools in Murshidábád, of which one is the collegiate school at Barhampur, and another the Nizámat school in the city of Murshidábád. The two others are the Rájá's school at Kándi, and the mission school at Khágrá. At the last entrance examination 50 candidates were sent up. Twenty-one of the candidates passed, seven being placed in the first grade. Twelve out of the successful candidates were from the collegiate school, and five from the mission school. Surveying is being taught only in one of the schools, namely, the collegiate school, which is also getting up a gymnasium, where the pupils attend exercises on the parallel bar, etc., under a qualified teacher of gymnastics. The Rájá's school at Kándi will shortly have a surveying class, placed under a competent teacher from the Civil Engineering College in Calcutta. The Nizámat school has also begun to teach surveying within the last few months.

'MIDDLE SCHOOLS.—The total number of middle-class schools in

the District is 54. In twenty of these English is taught. Eighteen of these twenty schools are aided by Government, and two are unaided. The total number of pupils in the English schools is 854, of whom 71 only are Muhammadans. In the report of the District Committee it is suggested that schools of this class are especially adapted to the education of the large and important middle class of the community. At the last examination, however, 9 schools only sent up 24 candidates, of whom 13 passed, 6 of them obtaining minor scholarships. Of the 34 vernacular middle schools, 31 are aided, 1 unaided, and 2 Government schools. The total number of pupils at these schools is 1314, of whom 150 are Muhammadans. Sixty-nine candidates, of whom one was a Muhammadan, came up from 22 schools to compete for vernacular scholarships. Forty-seven passed, and nine obtained scholarships. About half-a-dozen of the middle schools have begun to teach surveying; and although most of them have not yet been supplied with the instruments necessary to teach it practically, yet the teachers are applying themselves manfully to get up the theoretical part of the subject.

'PRIMARY SCHOOLS.—These are of three descriptions:—(1) The lower vernacular schools under the grant-in-aid system; (2) the 5-rupee *páthsálás;* and (3) the new primary schools. There are three lower vernacular schools, two of which are aided and one is a Government school. These contain 85 students, of whom 18 are Muhammadans. The Deputy-Inspector thinks that the 5-rupee *páthsálás* are many of them better than these schools. The Government school of this description is the model or practising school, attached to the training school at the civil station, where the *gurus* learn practically how to teach, under the superintendence of one of the Normal masters. There are 72 old or 5-rupee *páthsálás*, on which the Deputy-Inspector reports to the following effect:—These *páthsálás* have 1894 pupils, of whom 359 are Muhammadans. Each of them is under a certified *guru*, who is generally allowed to board and lodge with one of the managers, so that his receipts from local sources average about Rs. 5 per month. These *páthsálás*, generally speaking, teach up to the third-class course of the middle-class schools, and have therefore the status of lower vernacular schools; but where circumstances favour, they push up higher, and try to send pupils to the vernacular scholarship examination. The Jamua *páthsálá*, to which only a 5-rupee stipend is given, has had its staff increased to three

teachers by the managers, and it sent up two successful candidates to the last scholarship examination. With reference to the instruction imparted, the Deputy-Inspector reports: "Sound instruction, combined with all that is practical and useful in every-day life, is imparted in these *páthsálás*." He adds: "These little schools must, in course of time, grow and develop into superior schools." Under the Government order of 30th September last, 177 new primary schools have been established, revived, or subsidized; of which 160 are said to be working well, and have sent in returns. The total number of pupils in these *páthsálás* is 3920 boys and 20 girls, or 3940 in all. Of these, 1452 are Muhammadans. The teachers of these *páthsálás* consist of 119 *gurus*, 23 passed and unpassed pupils of the training school, and 19 students of vernacular schools. The number of Muhammadan *gurus* is 38, of whom 16 have charge of *maktabs*, where they teach Arabic and Persian as well as Bengalí. Besides the 177 *páthsálás* subsidized under the orders of September last, 79 *páthsálás* have started under private enterprise, which also have furnished returns. They educate 1994 boys and 14 girls, or 1958 pupils in all; of whom 613 are Muhammadans, and 4 native Christians—the first instance (the committee think) of native Christians attending such schools.

'There are 13 night *pathsálás* under the reward system of 1866-67, attended by 281 pupils; of whom 240 are Hindus, and 41 Muhammadans. There is also a night-school under the grant-in-aid system, attended by 27 Muhammadans and 3 Hindus. These schools afford instruction of an elementary character, and are attended chiefly by adult labourers.

'NORMAL SCHOOLS.—There is one Normal School in the District, the Barhampur Training School. It had 75 pupils on its rolls on the 31st March last, as against 84 for the preceding year. Forty-three candidates went up for the annual pass examination, of whom 3 passed in the first grade, and 34 in the second grade.

'GIRLS' SCHOOLS.—There are three aided girls' schools in the District, and six girls' classes attached to *páthsálás;* the number of pupils attending them is 177. The aided girls' school at Barhampur is much cared for, and appears to be the best conducted of this class in the District.

'GRANTS FOR EDUCATION FROM GOVERNMENT ESTATES, ETC.—The Magistrate reports that, out of the rental of Government estates, one per cent. has been set aside for educational purposes,

amounting to £12, 14s. 0d. The Murshidábád Municipality has given £20. From the estate of the late Bábu Kedár Náth Mahátá, now under the Court of Wards, has been received £12; from Páikpárá, £12, 2s. 0d.;—in all, £56, 16s. 0d. I should add that the Páikpárá estate supports the excellent higher-class school at Kándí, the annual cost of which is £465, 11s. 8d.; and also contributes £2 per month towards the support of the yet unaided school at Báliyá. The Magistrate further reports that assistance has been procured from some of the *zamíndárs* and influential villagers. A number of the former have promised pecuniary contributions; and the latter have in many cases furnished house accommodation for the *páthsálás*, and received the *gurus* into their houses free of board. . . . Ráo Jogendrá Náráyan Rái, of Lálgolá, has himself started four *páthsálás*, which will be maintained entirely at his own cost.'

Concerning the mode of instruction adopted in the village schools, the Revenue Surveyor wrote in 1857:—'Many schools exist in the larger villages, the pupils being quite young children. The mode of instruction chiefly followed is that of repetition, by the pupils in a body, of the sentence pronounced by the master. Palm-leaf slips are commonly used for the teaching of reading and writing, written on with black ink when used for reading purposes, and with chalk and water when used for writing. In the better class of schools square black boards are used; chalk and water being the medium used for writing on them also, and a slip of bamboo or a reed forming the pen.'

Postal Statistics.—Between the years 1861-62 and 1870-71, the number of letters received at the Murshidábád post office has increased by 19·35 per cent., having risen (including newspapers, parcels, and books) from 56,153 in 1861-62, to 39,901 in 1865-66, and to 67,024 in 1870-71. The number of letters, newspapers, parcels, and books despatched from the District increased from 41,080 in 1861-62, to 34,024 in 1865-66. I have not yet succeeded in obtaining the number of letters, etc. despatched in 1870-71. In 1861-62 the total postal receipts amounted to £1595, 3s. 8d., and the expenditure to £853, 6s. 11d. In 1865-66 the receipts were £1829, 0s. 7d., and the expenditure £966, 2s. 2d. In 1870-71, the receipts had increased to £2446, 16s. 7d., exclusive of receipts from sale of service stamps for official correspondence, which in 1870-71 amounted to £68, 19s. 0d. (service stamps were first introduced in 1866), making a total of £2515, 15s. 7d. The ex-

penditure in that year amounted to £1441, 6s. 7d. The following table, showing the number of letters, etc. received at and despatched from the Murshidábád post office, for the years 1861-62, 1865-66, and 1870-71, is compiled from a return furnished to me by the Director-General of Post Offices.

POSTAL STATISTICS OF MURSHIDABAD DISTRICT.

	1861-62.		1865-66.		1870-71.	
	Received.	Despatched.	Received.	Despatched.	Received.	Despatched.
Letters,	49,804	39,757	35,320	33,656	61,340	*Materials not received for this column.*
Newspapers,	5,190	1,137	4,094	154	5,314	
Parcels,	808	158	216	162	125	
Books,	351	28	271	52	245	
Total,	56,153	41,080	39,901	34,024	67,024	
Sale of postage stamps,	£710 16 4		£943 8 6		£1213 13 6	
Cash collections,	884 7 4		885 12 1		1233 3 1	
Total receipts,	1595 3 8		1829 0 7		2446 16 7[1]	
Total expenditure,	853 6 11		966 2 2		1441 6 7	

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS.—Murshidábád District is divided into four Subdivisions, as follow. The population statistics are taken from the Census Report of 1872 (Appendix, Statements 1 A and 1 B). The administrative statistics are derived from the special report furnished to me by the Collector in 1873. In the interval between these two dates, the Subdivisions of the District had been re-arranged, though not altered in number. Rámpur Hát had taken the place of Kándí; and the area, etc. of the Lálbágh Subdivision had, presumably, been affected by the loss of the *tháná* of Rámpur Hát. I have, however, no means of reducing the population and administrative statistics to the same date; and there is, therefore, an unavoidable element of error in the following paragraphs.

(1) THE SADR SUBDIVISION, which contains the Civil Station and headquarters of the District at Barhampur, has an area of 1195 square miles, with 1855 villages or townships, 136,960 houses,

[1] Exclusive of £68, 19s. 0d., receipts from sale of service stamps for official correspondence. Service stamps were first introduced in 1866.

and a total population of 631,317 souls; of whom 281,973 are Hindus, 346,121 Muhammadans, 290 Christians, and 2933 of other religions; number of persons per square mile, 528; number of villages per square mile, 1·55; number of houses per square mile, 115; average number of inmates per house, 4·6; proportion of males in total population, 47·8. In 1873 the Subdivision contained seven Revenue and Magisterial Courts, twelve police circles (*thánás*), a regular police force of 389 men, a municipal or town police numbering 160, and a rural police force (*chaukídárs*) of 1971 men. Cost of Subdivisional Administration, £7168, 12s. 0d.

(2) LALBAGH, OR CITY OF MURSHIDABAD SUBDIVISION, was first established in September 1860. It occupied, according to the Census of 1872, since which date it has undergone considerable modification, an area of 357 square miles, with 718 villages or towns, 51,874 houses, and a total population of 213,595 souls; of whom 143,822 are Hindus, 60,694 Muhammadans, 201 Christians, and 8878 'Others' not classified; number of persons per square mile, 598; number of villages per square mile, 2·01; number of houses per square mile, 145; average number of inmates per house, 4·1; proportion of males in total population, 47·8. In 1873 it contained one Revenue and Magisterial Court, and five police circles (*thánás*); maintained a regular police force of 98 men, a municipal or town police numbering 154, and a rural police force (*chaukídárs*) of 1492 men. Cost of Subdivisional Administration, £6181, 10s. 0d.

(3) JANGIPUR SUBDIVISION was established in January 1854. It occupies an area of 576 square miles, with 668 villages or towns, 58,818 houses, and a total population of 273,487 souls; of whom 147,988 are Hindus, 122,591 Muhammadans, 41 Christians, and 2867 'Others' not classified; number of persons per square mile, 475; number of villages per square mile, 1·16; number of houses per square mile, 102; average number of inmates per house, 4·6; proportion of males in total population, 47·2. In 1873 it contained one Revenue and Magisterial Court, five police circles (*thánás*), a regular police force of 123 men, a municipal or town police numbering 36, and a rural police force (*chaukídárs*) of 899 men. Cost of Subdivisional Administration, £3312, 3s. 6d.

(4) RAMPUR HAT SUBDIVISION was established on 1st January 1873, in the place of the former Subdivision of Kándí, which had been first constituted in February 1857. I have no means of ascertaining to what extent the area of the new Subdivision

is coincident with that of the old. The area of Kándí in 1872 was 450 square miles, with 512 villages or towns, 55,909 houses, and a total population of 235,227 souls; of whom 159,273 are Hindus, 74,158 Muhammadans, 5 Christians, and 1791 'Others' not classified; number of persons per square mile, 523; number of villages per square mile, 1·14; number of houses per square mile, 124; average number of inmates per house, 4·2; proportion of males to the total population, 47·3. In 1873 Rámpur Hat contained one Revenue and Magisterial Court, a regular police force of 70 men, and a rural police force (*chaukídárs*) of 1971 men. Cost of Subdivisional Administration, £2604, 8s. 0d.

According to the Administrative figures given above, the following totals may be arrived at for the year 1873:—The regular police numbered 680; the municipal police, 350; and the rural police, 6333 men. Excepting the case of the rural police, these figures almost exactly agree with those that have already been given on a preceding page of this Account for the year 1872. The total cost of Administration amounts to £19,266, 13s. 6d. The total number of Revenue and Magisterial Courts, as above given, is only 10; but according to another return, based upon a different principle of classification, the number of Magisterial Courts in 1870-71 was 11; of Civil, 7; of Revenue, 11;—total, 29.

Fiscal Divisions.—The following list of Fiscal Divisions or *pargaṅás* is mainly based upon a list furnished by the Collector. The figures are taken from the Board of Revenue's Statistics; with the exception of the numbers of the villages, which are taken from the Collector's list. They should be regarded as only approximating to correctness, and it is uncertain to what date they refer:—

(1) Akbarshahi contains an area of 9146 acres, or 14·29 square miles; with 81 villages; it comprises 20 estates; pays to Government an annual land revenue of £1042, 14s. 0d.

(2) Alinagar: area, 1967 acres, or 3·07 square miles; 7 villages; 5 estates; land revenue, £160, 8s. 0d.

(3) Ashraf-bhag: area, 4151 acres, or 6·49 square miles; 143 villages; 38 estates; land revenue, £529.

(4) Asadnagar: area, 19,161 acres, or 29·94 square miles; 176 villages; 53 estates; land revenue, £3579, 10s. 0d.

(5) Azimnagar: area, 11,076 acres, or 17·31 square miles; 91 villages; 11 estates; land revenue, £2003, 2s. 0d.

(6) BARJAMULA: area, 786 acres, or 1·23 square miles; 6 villages; 1 estate; land revenue, £32, 2s. od.

(7) BARBAKPUR: area, 2932 acres, or 4·58 square miles; 14 villages; 1 estate; land revenue, £329, 10s. od.

(8) BARBAKSINH: area, 6982 acres, or 10·91 square miles; 19 villages; 38 estates; land revenue, £1348, 4s. od.

(9) BEDRABAD: area, 1520 acres, or 2·37 square miles; 12 villages; 2 estates; land revenue, £400, 6s. od.

(10) BHATSALA: area, 813 acres, or 1·27 square miles; 25 villages; 8 estates; land revenue, £93, 8s. od.

(11) BIHROL: area, 28,165 acres, or 44·01 square miles; 27 villages; 89 estates; land revenue, £2553, 4s. od.

(12) BUITALI: area, 7682 acres, or 12·00 square miles; 48 villages; 13 estates; land revenue, £585, 12s. od.

(13) CHANDPUR: area, 1524 acres, or 2·38 square miles; 71 villages; 16 estates; land revenue, £68.

(14) CHANGNADIYA: area, 3751 acres, or 5·86 square miles; 46 villages; 7 estates; land revenue, £292, 18s. od.

(15) CHUNAKHALI: area, 51,215 acres, or 80·02 square miles; 550 villages; 194 estates; land revenue, £3109, 10s. od.

(16) DASHAZARI: area, 11,285 acres, or 17·63 square miles; 75 villages; 3 estates; land revenue, £319, 2s. od.

(17) DAUDSHAHI: area, 1451 acres, or 2·27 square miles; 14 villages; 5 estates; land revenue, £379, 16s. od.

(18) DAYANAGAR: area, 9675 acres, or 15·11 square miles; 55 villages; 15 estates; land revenue, £1673, 4s. od.

(19) DHAWA: area, 25,108 acres, or 39·23 square miles; 438 villages; 126 estates; land revenue, £2907, 4s. od.

(20) DIHAT AKBARSHAHI: area, 1573 acres, or 2·46 square miles; 12 villages; 2 estates; land revenue, £56.

(21) DIWANAPUR: area, 2338 acres, or 3·65 square miles; 73 villages; 9 estates; land revenue, £251, 10s. od.

(22) FARAKHABAD: area, 1487 acres, or 2·32 square miles; 7 villages; 3 estates; land revenue, £30, 16s. od.

(23) FATHISINH: area, 133,720 acres, or 208·94 square miles; 2134 villages; 855 estates; land revenue, £13,734, 14s. od.

(24) GANKAR: area, 40,842 acres, or 63·81 square miles; 228 villages; 45 estates; land revenue, £3840, 4s. od.

(25) GHYASABAD: area, 3157 acres, or 4·93 square miles; 48 villages; 20 estates; land revenue, £290, 6s. od.

(26) GOWAS: area, 220,582 acres, or 344·66 square miles; 765 villages; 77 estates; land revenue, £12,360, 10s. od.

(27) GOPINATHPUR: area, 9885 acres, or 15·44 square miles; 88 villages; 14 estates; land revenue, £816, 6s. od.

(28) GORERHAT: area, 7683 acres, or 12·00 square miles; 48 villages; 18 estates; land revenue, £338, 8s. od.

(29) HUSAINUZIAL: area, 3820 acres, or 5·97 square miles; 27 villages; 3 estates; land revenue, £172, 4s. od.

(30) ISLAMPUR: area, 39,056 acres, or 61·02 square miles; 116 villages; 20 estates; land revenue, £1953, 10s. od.

(31) JOAR BIRAHIMPUR: area, 2750 acres, or 4·30 square miles; 17 villages; 4 estates; land revenue, £88, 16s. od.

(32) JOAR IBRAHIMPUR: area, 388 acres, or ·60 of a square mile; 8 villages; 5 estates; land revenue, £44, 8s. od.

(33) KANKJOL: area, 5199 acres, or 8·12 square miles; 18 villages; 7 estates; land revenue, £486.

(34) KANTNAGAR: area, 12,133 acres, or 18·95 square miles; 42 villages; 5 estates; land revenue, £1040, 6s. od.

(35) KASIMNAGAR: area, 4487 acres, or 7·01 square miles; 17 villages; 6 estates; land revenue, £148, 18s. od.

(36) KASIPUR: area, 19,396 acres, or 30·30 square miles; 125 villages; 37 estates; land revenue, £2250, 16s. od.

(37) KATGARH: area, 1556 acres, or 2·43 square miles; 11 villages; 6 estates; land revenue, £162, 16s. od.

(38) KHARGRAM: area, 14,150 acres, or 22·11 square miles; 153 villages; 48 estates; land revenue, £1188.

(39) KULBERIA: area, 60,667 acres, or 94·79 square miles; 406 villages; 74 estates; land revenue, £5302, 4s. od.

(40) KUMAR-PRATAP: area, 220,191 acres, or 344·05 square miles; 1033 villages; 115 estates; land revenue, £20,548, 18s. od.

(41) KUTABPUR: area, 20,289 acres, or 31·70 square miles; 204 villages; 77 estates; land revenue, £2271, 10s. od.

(42) LASHKARPUR: area, 25,384 acres, or 39·66 square miles; 266 villages; 15 estates; land revenue, £1468, 6s. od.

(43) MAHALANDI: area, 37,626 acres, or 58·79 square miles; 828 villages; 86 estates; land revenue, £2810, 6s. od.

(44) MAJKURI: area, 449 acres, or ·70 of a square mile; 2 villages; 2 estates; land revenue, £80, 12s. od.

(45) MANGALPUR: area, 7073 acres, or 11·05 square miles; 196 villages; 11 estates; land revenue, £331, 8s. od.

(46) MANOHARSHAHI: area, 73 acres, or ·11 of a square mile; 1 village; 1 estate; land revenue, £17, 4s. od.

(47) MASUMABAD: area, 604 acres, or ·94 of a square mile; 3 villages; 3 estates; land revenue, £135, 10s. od.

(48) MOHANPUR: area, 4728 acres, or 7·39 square miles; 16 villages; 2 estates; land revenue, £446, 12s. od.

(49) MUHAMMAD-ALIPUR: area, 878 acres, or 1·37 square miles; 10 villages; 4 estates; land revenue, £37, 10s. od.

(50) MURARIPUR: area, 20,274 acres, or 31·68 square miles; 139 villages; 20 estates; land revenue, £1878, 2s. od.

(51) MUZAFFARPUR: area, 2005 acres, or 3·13 square miles; 6 villages; 2 estates; land revenue, £211, 14s. od.

(52) NASIPUR: area, 4574 acres, or 7·15 square miles; 31 villages; 8 estates; land revenue, £411, 2s. od.

(53) NAWANAGAR: area, 44,772 acres, or 69·96 square miles; 552 villages; 170 estates; land revenue, £6075, 12s. od.

(54) NAWASIKHA FATHIPUR: area, 7286 acres, or 11·38 square miles; 9 villages; 4 estates; land revenue, £467, 14s. od.

(55) PALASI: area, 1139 acres, or 1·78 square miles; 103 villages; 27 estates; land revenue, £3140, 14s. od.

(56) PATIKABARI: area, 28,308 acres, or 44·23 square miles; 107 villages; 21 estates; land revenue, £1254, 16s. od.

(57) RADHABALLABHPUR: area, 9434 acres, or 14·74 square miles; 47 villages; 2 estates; land revenue, £880, 12s. od.

(58) RAJPUR: area, 21,125 acres, or 33·01 square miles; 65 villages; 10 estates; land revenue, £1241, 18s. od.

(59) RAJSHAHI: area, 16,987 acres, or 26·54 square miles; 111 villages; 30 estates; land revenue, £1542, 16s. od.

(60) ROKANPUR: area, 93,150 acres, or 145·55 square miles; 308 villages; 27 estates; land revenue, £7765, 2s. od.

(61) SAMASKHANI: area, 22,060 acres, or 34·47 square miles; 171 villages; 69 estates; land revenue, £1479, 2s. od.

(62) SHAHBAZPUR: area, 11,092 acres, or 17·33 square miles; 32 villages; 5 estates; land revenue, £1217, 6s. od.

(63) SHAHJAHANPUR: area, 4710 acres, or 7·36 square miles; 60 villages; 5 estates; land revenue, £653, 18s. od.

(64) SHAHSALIMPUR: area, 1033 acres, or 1·61 square miles; 8 villages; 2 estates; land revenue, £48, 18s. od.

(65) SHAHZADPUR: area, 20,532 acres, or 32·08 square miles; 204 villages; 92 estates; land revenue, £2550, 2s. od.

(66) SHERPUR: area, 54,677 acres, or 85·43 square miles; 298 villages; 77 estates; land revenue, £6696.

(67) SULTANUZIAL: area, 18,135 acres, or 28·34 square miles; 130 villages; 40 estates; land revenue, £1744, 4s. od.

(68) SWARUPSINH: area not given; 1 village; 1 estate; land revenue, £6, 14s. od.

(69) WAZIRABAD: area, 13,859 acres, or 21·65 square miles; 77 villages; 19 estates; land revenue, £1013, 10s. od.

The foregoing 69 Fiscal Divisions, according to the Statistics furnished by the Board of Revenue, contain a total area of 1,495,706 acres, or 2337·04 square miles, comprising 2850 estates, and pay a total Government land revenue of £134,390, 18s. od. In correction of these figures, it may be mentioned that the area of the District, as returned by the Boundary Commissioner in 1874, is 2462·44 square miles; that the number of estates in 1871 was returned at 2853, and the total amount of land revenue in the same year at £133,062, 10s. od. The total number of villages enumerated above is 11,481; the Census Report of 1872, adopting a different definition, returned the number of 'villages, *mauzás*, or townships' at 3753. In explanation of this discrepancy, it may be mentioned that the Revenue definition of a village includes spots which have ceased to be inhabited.

METEOROLOGY.—Barhampur is one of the 24 stations which have been chosen to return special data to the meteorological department. The following paragraphs have been condensed from the annual reports of the Meteorological Reporter to the Government of Bengal for the years 1871 and 1872. The elevation of Barhampur above the sea has been definitely determined by spirit level to be 65 feet. It is situated 170 miles from the sea, 30 miles below the point where the Bhágirathí leaves the Ganges. It is thus on the edge of the delta, for the ground rises from a short distance to the west of the river up to the foot of the Rájmahál hills, and the undulating country of Birbhúm. The averages of the mean atmospheric pressures for the four years ending 1871 are as follow:—January, 29·948; February, 29·876; March, 29·790; April, 29·676; May, 29·568; June, 29·442; July, 29·467; August, 29·541; September, 29·624; October, 29·769; November, 29·908; December, 29·975; annual average, 29·715. The mean monthly temperatures for the same period of four years are:—January, 65·3°; February, 70·7°; March, 78·2°; April, 85·5°; May, 86·3°; June, 84·6°;

July, 84·0°; August, 84·1°; September, 83·4°; October, 81·7°; November, 73·5°; December, 66·2°; annual average, 78·6°. The highest maximum, lowest minimum, and mean monthly temperatures, *by day*, are thus returned for the two years 1871-72. In 1871—January, highest maximum, 85·0°; lowest minimum, 48·5°; mean, 65·9°. February, max., 94·5°; min., 55·5°; mean, 73·5°. March, max., 102·0°; min., 55·0°; mean, 78·0°. April, max., 106·0°; min., 66·0°; mean, 84·3°. May, max., 100·0°; min., 67·5°; mean, 82·5°. June, max., 98·5°; min., 77·0°; mean, 83·2°. July, max., 94·0°; min., 77·0°; mean, 83·2°. August, max., 93·0°; min., 76·5°; mean, 84·1°. September, max., 93·5°; min., 76·5°; mean, 83·1°. October, max., 94·0°; min., 69·5°; mean, 82·3°. November, max., 91·0°; min., 57·0°; mean, 74·8°. December, max., 82·0°; min., 50·5°; mean, 67·0°. In 1872—January, max., 85·0°; min., 47·5°; mean, 65·6°. February, max., 92·5°; min., 67·5°; mean, 67·9°. March, max., 103·5°; min., 60·0°; mean, 81·2°. April, max., 109·0°; min., 65·0°; mean, 85·6°. May, max., 107·5°; min., 71·0°; mean, 87·1°. June, max., 106·5°; min., 75·0°; mean, 86·0°. July, max., 103·5°; min., 76·5°; mean, 84·2°. August, max., 95·5°; min., 77·0°; mean, 84·5°. September, max., 96·0°; min., 76·0°; mean, 83·9°. October, max., 95·5°; min., 69·5°; mean, 81·2°. November, max., 89·5°; min., 57·0°; mean, 75·4°. December, max., 84·0°; min., 51·5°; mean, 68·2°. The maximum, minimum, and mean monthly readings of the grass radiation thermometer, *by night*, are thus returned for the same years. In 1871—January, max., 58·5°; min., 39·0°; mean, 47·0°. February, max., 63·5°; min., 49·0°; mean, 55·1°. March, max., 67·0°; min., 49·5°; mean, 58·1°. April, max., 76·0°; min., 62·5°; mean, 70·2°. May, max., 76·0°; min., 64·5°; mean, 71·5°. June, max., 79·0°; min., 74·5°; mean, 76·7°. July, max., 79·5°; min., 74·5°; mean, 76·8°. August, max., 79·0°; min., 74·5°; mean, 77·1°. September, max., 79·0°; min., 74·5°; mean, 75·9°. October, max., 77·0°; min., 64·0°; mean, 71·6°. November, max., 67·0°; min., 45·0°; mean, 58·1. December, max., 57·0°; min., 41·0°; mean, 50·0°. In 1872—January, max., 58·0; min., 40·0°; mean, 48·9. February, max., 58·5°; min., 43·0°; mean, 50·8°. March, max., 65·0°; min., 52·5°; mean, 57·8°. April, max., 78·0°; min., 59·5°; mean, 69·7°. May, max., 81·5°; min., 68·0°; mean, 74·0°. June, max., 80·5°; min., 73·0°; mean, 76·7°. July, max., 80·0°; min., 74·5°; mean, 76·6°. August, max., 79·0°; min., 74·0°; mean, 77·1°. September, max.,

79·0°; min., 73·0°; mean, 75·6°. October, max., 76·5°; min., 63·0°; mean, 70·1°. November, max., 68·0°; min., 51·0°; mean, 61·0°. December, max., 67·0°; min., 46·0°; mean, 53·4°. The average annual rainfall, deduced from a series of observations extending over a period of fourteen years ending 1872, amounts to 54·30 inches. The monthly rainfall for the year 1871 is returned as follows:—January, *nil;* February, 0·02 inches; March, 1·28; April, 3·69; May, 6·22; June, 13·82; July, 14·31; August, 12·14; September, 15·77; October, 1·82; November, *nil;* December, *nil;* total for the year, 69·07 inches, or 14·77 inches in excess of the annual average. The monthly rainfall for 1872 was:—January, 0·04 inches; February, 2·81; March, 0·14; April, 0·63; May, 3·30; June, 13·66; July, 9·00; August, 9·48; September, 14·37; October, 12·19; November, *nil;* December, *nil;* total for the year, 65·62 inches, or 11·32 inches in excess of the annual average. The general direction of the wind on an average of three years is thus returned:—From November to February, inclusive, N.W.; from March to April, S.W.; from May to September, S.E.; and October, N.E. The average diurnal rate of motion of the wind in miles is thus returned for each month, on an average of two years:—January, 37·2; February, 41·4; March, 56·5; April, 88·7; May, 99·7; June, 128·9; July, 99·4; August, 78·1; September, 75·6; October, 47·7; November, 29·0; December, 28·1.

The climate of Murshidábád District does not differ in any important respect from that of the rest of Lower Bengal. It is separated into the three usual seasons,—the hot, cold, and rainy weather. The only peculiarity is, that in the hot season a hot wind is wont to set in, blowing from the Rárh or western half of the District over the Bágri or eastern portion.

The District is not liable to be desolated by cyclones. On the occasion of the great cyclone of October 1864, it was found that Barhampur lay at the extreme northern limit of the area of destruction. The following account of the meteorological phenomena exhibited on that occasion, as given by the Civil Surgeon, is quoted on p. 53 of the official *Report on the Calcutta Cyclone*:—'On 4th October the sky was cloudy, with occasional showers from the eastward, and thunder. At 4 P.M. the aneroid stood at 29·70, and the thermometer showed 84°. At daybreak on the 5th there was a thick, driving mist, with a strong easterly wind blowing in gusts. By 7 A.M. the mist had changed into a heavy rain, the wind at the

same time increasing. As the day advanced the rain continued, and the wind gradually veered round to northward, and increased in violence. By 7 P.M. it was north-north-east; by dark it was nearly north, and blowing in gusts with heavy rain. It continued to increase in force till about 10 P.M., when it was from the north-west. From this time it gradually subsided. At the time of its greatest force, it was not stronger than an ordinary equinoctial gale, so common at the breaking up of the monsoon; and it did but little injury beyond blowing down a few trees and native huts, and sinking some country boats. The trees blown down were all lying from north-north-west to south-south-east. At daybreak next morning the wind was due west. The barometer (aneroid) readings for the 5th were as follow:—At 6 A.M., 29·78; at 10 A.M., 29·69; at 4 P.M., 29·47; at 10 P.M., 29·30. At 6 A.M. of the following day the reading was 29·63. The fall of rain during the two days, the 4th and 5th, amounted to a total of 3·43 inches.' 'At Rámpur Hát, thirty miles west, and a little north of Barhampur,' as reported by a civil engineer in the service of the Railway Company, 'it was blowing rather fresh during the day (the 5th), with heavy showers, but the wind was not so strong as to attract particular notice. The prevailing direction was from the north-east, and it blew stronger between 9 and 11 P.M. than it did during the day. Between 5 and 7 P.M. it was quite calm; the wind commenced again after 7, and blew more from the north.'

MEDICAL ASPECTS.—The following general description is taken from the Report of the Revenue Surveyor (1857):—'The District of Murshidábád cannot be called healthy. The western side of the Bhágirathí has more claims to the title than the eastern, but on neither bank do the inhabitants appear robust and strong; they are all weakly-looking, and short in stature. Fever and cholera are the great scourges of the District, more especially in the towns and villages on the Bhágirathí, and above all in the city of Murshidábád and its environs. In fact, in the large *bázárs*, cases are to be found all the year round. As a general rule, the months of March, April, and May, preceding the rainy weather, and October, November, and half of December, which follow the cessation of the rains, are the most unhealthy months. No sooner does the Bhágirathí fall sufficiently low to allow the *jhil* waters to drain off into it, than sickness commences all along the river banks. It is to this influx of *jhil* water that the natives themselves

attribute the sickness so prevalent before the cold season has fairly set in. When to this is added the numerous half-burned bodies that are daily thrown into the river, which is then almost a chain of stagnant pools, there is little cause to wonder at the sickness of those who habitually use this water for drinking and cooking purposes. The English residents at Barhampur use either rain water collected during the rains, or resort to the wells in the Station. The well-water is not very good, and is all more or less impregnated with some saline matter, which gives it a slightly soft and brackish flavour. The *sipáhís* in the lines generally use tank water, and enjoy good health.'

So far as can be gathered from the statistics furnished by the dispensaries and the jail hospital, it would seem to have been proved by the experience of several years that warmth and healthiness, cold and unhealthiness, regularly go together. The months from February to June, despite the prevalence of cholera during the hot season, are uniformly the most healthy; while those from August to January, with the singular exception of September, are the unhealthiest. According to the returns for both 1871 and 1872, October, November, and December are by far the three most unhealthy months of the year, fever being the most fatal disease. An increase in the mortality from fever regularly commences in August, when the rivers begin to rise, and continues to the close of the year; a circumstance which indicates that the cold caused by evaporating moisture is the chief cause of these febrile attacks. Bowel complaints, also, are found to be most fatal from November to January; and in the year 1871 cholera was abnormally prevalent at the same season of the year. These facts seem to support the theory of the Civil Surgeon, who attributes the unhealthiness of the District to the fact that the poorer inhabitants do not, and cannot, sufficiently protect themselves from cold. 'The pernicious action of cold on persons who are never in a healthy state, and are unprovided with good food, warm clothing, and comfortable houses, can be easily understood; and, doubtless, even the intense heat of May, which to Europeans is so unbearable, is not really so dangerous to health as insidious attacks of cold on a weak and insufficiently nourished people.'

Diseases.—Among the endemics to be found permanently in the District, are malarious fever, splenitis, elephantiasis, and hydrocele. Cholera, also, may be regarded as an endemic in Murshidábád.

Splénitis is very common, especially in those parts of the District where the drinking water is bad. The Civil Surgeon states that in nine out of every ten cases observed, the spleen is found to be in an enlarged state. The prevalence of both elephantiasis and hydrocele is said to be induced by the peculiar composition of the water. It is stated, however, as worthy of notice, that cases of elephantiasis and goitre are almost entirely absent from dispensary practice. There is a peculiar kind of fever, known by the name of *sánjar*, which is peculiar to the District. Persons suffering from gonorrhœa and syphilis are generally subject to it. A high fever comes on for three or four days, accompanied by pain and swelling of the testes, usually at the full or new moon.

Malarious fever, of the type which is universal in Lower Bengal, is extremely common in Murshidábád District. Out of a total of 12,930 deaths, reported by the police during the two years 1871-72, no less than 10,180 or 78·73 per cent. were assigned to this cause. In the same two years, a total of 6645 persons were treated for fever and ague at the several dispensaries of the District, out of a grand total of 33,535 patients, being 19·81 per cent. of the whole. Of the fever patients, 31 died, or 13·60 per cent. of the total number of deaths. The cold months of the year, from October to January, are those in which fever is most prevalent. Of late years, fever has not taken an actively epidemic form in any part of the District, though its severity every year is affected by the duration of the rains or the extent of the floods. In 1873, malarious fever prevailed to a greater extent and with more severity than usual; the worst months were April and May, and August to November. No traces of the terrible Bardwán fever have been observed in Murshidábád, except in the very outskirts of *tháná* Bharatpur, which adjoins Bardwán District. Continued and remittent fevers are very rare; and when they do occur, they are complicated with spleen and liver congestions. There are certain spots in the District which have been desolated by fever within the present century, and which still remain deserted. Of these the most conspicuous is Kásimbázár, where the old stagnant channel of the Bhágiráthí still attests the cause of the pestilence which overthrew this once flourishing city. It is said that the place was depopulated by a malarious fever in 1814, the year which immediately followed the change of course of the river. There are still a few miserable inhabitants, who haunt the banks of the Kásimbázár lake, as the stagnant pool is yet

called; but their sickly condition can never be ameliorated until either that lake be drained, or a current of fresh water be diverted into it. Bínagar, the residence of the celebrated Ráni Bhawáni, is said to have been destroyed in the beginning of this century by a similar catastrophe. The village of Mirzápur, in the *tháná* of the same name, has also been ruined by fever; though in this case the cause of the malaria was not equally manifest. Prior to 1862, Mirzápur was considered a very healthy place, and had a large population, chiefly composed of silk manufacturers and weavers. But in that year a virulent outbreak of malarious fever took place; and it is said that in a few months half the inhabitants either died or left their homes. Medical relief was at length sent, and the mortality greatly diminished; but at the present time the village cannot boast of a single healthy person. A neighbouring village called Belghátá has met with the same fate. Both these two villages have dirty holes and old ponds, with innumerable clumps of bamboos and other trees on the sides. It is conjectured that the decomposing vegetable matter engendered under these circumstances was the proximate cause of the malarious poison.

Cholera is normally present in the District at almost all seasons of the year. According to the police returns, there was not a single month in 1871 during which some deaths from cholera did not take place; and in 1872, June was the only month entirely free from this disease. In 1871 there was a severe outbreak in November and December,—a most unusual occurrence,—and 525 deaths out of a total of 659 took place during those two months. In the neighbourhood of Azímganj, cholera appeared sporadically in October, and was attributed to eating rotten *hilsá* fish. In 1872 there was less cholera than in the preceding year; only 442 deaths against 659. Of these, by far the majority were in January, February, and March; and no less than 383 of them occurred in the southern *thánás* of the Districts. Concerning the local incidence of this disease the Civil Surgeon remarks: 'It was observable that along the main roads and the river banks, where traffic and communication are greatest, there the least cholera occurred; whereas in Kándí in the south-west, and Nawádá in the south-east, which have but unmetalled roads, the cholera was severest and stayed longest.' In 1873 there was an outbreak of more than usual violence in the western part of the District.

Small-pox regularly recurs in an epidemic form in the spring,

before the commencement of the hot weather, because inoculation is chiefly practised at that time. In 1871, the number of reported deaths from this disease was 46, of which 29 were in March; in 1872, the reported number was 56, of which 29 were in April and May. In the latter year, this disease, like cholera, was almost confined to the southern *thánás* of the District, in which 47 out of the 56 deaths were recorded. The Civil Surgeon writes: 'There are a large number of Hindus and some Musálmans from Behar and the North-West residing in the District, who absolutely refuse to have themselves and their children vaccinated. These people, therefore, suffer most; and when small-pox gets among them, it continues for a long time. They do not isolate the attacked, to prevent contagion; they buy and sell, and wash, and go into the infected houses, utterly regardless of the result. One woman told me lately: "If Kálí takes my child, she will. It is not our custom to offend her by vaccination." Stopping inoculation has had one good effect; the inoculators are now taking to vaccination as a means of living. With the Magistrate's consent, I have given *parwánás* to three of these men, and supplied them with lymph. They had first to obtain a character from some respectable native, and then to take the *parwáná* to the head constable of the *thánd* in which they practised; and lastly, they had to send in their returns through him.' In 1873 there was a very severe outbreak of small-pox in certain parts of the District.

Concerning general Sanitation and Conservancy, the Civil Surgeon reported in 1872: 'The municipalities are gradually doing good, in cleaning roads and casting away refuse; but there is much yet to be done. It is not compulsory on the people to clean their own drains. The drainage generally is bad, for the *jhils* and tanks are but reservoirs of filth, and they are often so close to the wells as to affect the drinking water.'

At the fairs and religious gatherings deaths from cholera and fever are now and then observable, but the mortality is not of such a nature as to be worthy of special notice.

VITAL STATISTICS.—From the commencement of 1873, a new scheme of registration was introduced, in accordance with which the general vital statistics of Bengal were disregarded as hopelessly inaccurate, and special areas, one in the town and one in the country of each District, were selected as the scene of a more minute and regular system. The urban area chosen in Murshidábád is Gorá-

bázár, the southern suburb of the Civil Station, with a total population of 4903 souls. The number of deaths within this area during 1873 was 241, which gives a death-rate of 49·15 per thousand per annum, or 20·77 above the average death rate for all the selected urban areas of Bengal. This death-rate was the highest in any town in Bengal, with the single exception of Bardwán town, where the epidemic fever was still felt. During the first two quarters of the year, the ascertained death-rate of Gorá-bázár had been as high as 67·3. The selected rural area is covered by the villages of Chátám and Mirzápur, with a population of 4651 souls. The number of ascertained deaths in 1873 was 105, giving a death-rate of 22·57 per thousand per annum, or ·51 above the average death-rate for all the selected rural areas of Bengal.

INDIGENOUS VEGETABLE DRUGS.—The following list of drugs used in the District of Murshidábád has been furnished by the Civil Surgeon, on whom I rely for the scientific identifications:—(1) *Seth karubí* (Nerium odorum), or sweet-scented oleander; the root is narcotic and a violent poison. It is used in fevers in very small doses, and it forms an ingredient in the poison pill or *bishbori* of the *kabirájs*. Sometimes it is used internally for criminal purposes, to cause abortion. When given in large doses, it causes death by tetanic convulsions. (2) *Kurchi* (Wrightia anti-dysenterica); the bark of the tree is an excellent remedy for dysentery. The bark is a tonic, and the seeds are used as a febrifuge. (3) *Akand* (Calotropis gigantea); the bark of the root is an emetic, used in leprosy. (4) *Antamul* (Tylophora asthmatica); the bark of the root is an emetic, used in asthma; a substitute for ipecacuanha. (5) *Anantamul* (Hemidesmus Indicus); the root is diuretic, alterative, and a febrifuge; a substitute for sarsaparilla. (6) *Nebu* (Citrus bergamia); the juice is used as a vehicle for administering other medicines. (7) *Bel* (Ægle marmelos); the pulp of the fruit is used in dysentery. (8) *Kathbel* (Feronia elephantum); the pulp of the fruit is used as a refrigerant in the form of syrup. (9) *Bakásh* (Justicia adhatoda); the leaves, stem, and fruit used in the form of a decoction in asthma and bronchitis, as an expectorant. (10) *Nim* (Azadirachta Indica); the bark of the stem and leaves are a tonic and febrifuge, used in fevers and leprosy; the infusion of leaves is used in washing indolent sores. (11) *Darimba* (Punica granatum); the bark of the root is used as a vermifuge. (12) *Tisí* or *masiná* (Linum usitatissimum); the flour from the seeds is used as a poul-

tice, and the decoction of the seeds is demulcent. The boiled oil is used in painting and varnishes. (13) *Ghrita-kumárí* (Aloe Indica); the extract is a purgative. (14) *Pudina* (Mentha sativa); a favourite medicine of the *kabirájs* in dyspeptic complaints. (15) *Tulsí* (Ocimum sanctum); the leaves are a tonic and febrifuge. (16) *Mithi* (Trigonella fœnum-græcum); the seeds are demulcent, used in dysentery. (17) *Palás* (Butea frondosa); the gum of the tree is the Bengal *kino*. (18) *Kunch* (Abrus precatorius); the root is a substitute for liquorice. (19) *Alkushi* (Mucuna pruriens); the hairs covering the pods are used in the treatment of worm cases. (20) *Babul* (Acacia Arabica); the gum is demulcent. (21) *Isanmul* (Aristolochia Indica); the roots are a tonic and astringent, used in snake bites. (22) *Kálá sarishá* and *sádá sarishá* (Sinapis nigra and S. alba); the seeds yield a fixed oil. (23) *Muthá* (Cyperus pertenuis); the roots are a tonic, used in fevers in the form of an infusion or decoction, called in the vernacular *pancham* or *karáa*. (24) *Teorí* (Ipomœa turpethum); the roots are purgative. (25) *Haritakí* (Terminalia chebula); the powdered nut used as a purgative. (26) *Kankur* (Cucumis utilissimus); the seeds are diuretic. (27) *Jaipal* or *jamalgota* (Croton tiglium); the oil from the seed is cathartic; one seed is a sufficient dose for an adult. (28) *Arenda* (Ricinus communis); the seeds yield castor-oil. (29) *Bagh bherenda* (Jatropha curcas); the leaves used as a poultice to hasten suppuration. (30) *Chiretá* (Ophelia chirata); the stem and root are a tonic, febrifuge, and laxative, used in fevers and cases of general debility. (31) *Amaltás* (Cassia *vel* Cathartocarpus fistula); the pulp of the seed is a laxative. (32) *Sona-mukhí* (Cassia elongata); the leaves used in the form of an infusion as a purgative. (33) *Amlí* or *tentul* (Tamarindus Indica); the pulp is used as a purgative. (34) *Kat-karanja* (Cæsalpinia bonducella), or bonduc-nuts; the kernel of the seed is an antiperiodic and febrifuge. (35) *Uparáa-jitá* (Clitorea ternatea); the seeds are a purgative and emetic, but seldom used. (36) *Chámpá* (Michelia champaca); the bark is a tonic. (37) *Golanchá* (Cocculus cordifolius); the stem is a tonic and febrifuge; an extract prepared from it is used in fevers. (38) *Bhindiá* (Hibiscus esculentus); the fresh fruit is demulcent and expectorant. (39) *Sujiná* (Moringa pterygosperma); the fresh root is used in paralysis, intermittent fevers, etc. (40) *Amrul* (Oxalis corniculata); the leaves used as an acid drink in fevers. (41) *Nárikel* (Cocos nucifera); cocoa-nut oil. (42) *Pipul* (Piper longum);

the root is used as a stimulant. (43) *Pán* (Chavica betel); stimulant. (44) *Posto* (Papaver somniferum); grows in the gardens, but opium is not prepared in the District. (45) *Sial-kántá* (Argemone Mexicana); a laxative and stomachic. The seeds yield a large quantity of oil. (46) *Lál-chitrá* (Plumbago rosea). The bark is used for the purpose of blistering, and also in criminal designs to cause abortion. (47) *Isabgul* (Plantago ispaghula); the seeds are demulcent, used in gonorrhœa. (48) *Gáchhmarich* (Capsicum annuum); a powerful stimulant, used in dyspepsia. (49) *Sádá dhátura* and *kálá dhátura* (Datura alba, and D. fastuosa); the leaves are used for smoking in asthma; the seeds for criminal purposes to cause intoxication. (50) *Tamaku* (Nicotiana tabacum); a narcotic, emetic, and powerful sedative. (51) *Kantikárí* (Solanum jacquini); the dried plant in the form of a decoction, used as a febrifuge. (52) *Gánjá* (Cannabis sativa *vel* Indica); the dried flower and floral leaves called *gánjá*, the leaves called *bháng*, and the seeds *sidhí*, are all narcotic. (53) *Ajawán* (Carum *vel* Ptychotis ajowan); (54) *sajírá* (Carum nigrum); and (55) *pánmurí* or *sonf* (Fœniculum panmorium), or fennel. The seeds of all these three plants are carminative. (56) *Bhánt* (Clerodendron viscosum); the juice of the fresh leaves is used in fevers, as a tonic and antiperiodic. (57) *Adrakh* (Zingiber officinale); (58) *buch* (Z. zerumbet); and (59) *haldi* (Curcuma longa) are all three used as carminatives.

CHARITABLE DISPENSARIES.—There are three dispensaries, and three branch dispensaries in Murshidábád District. The following account of each is taken from the Annual Reports for the years 1871 and 1872:—In 1872 the total number of in-door patients treated was 565, and of out-door patients 16,671; giving a grand total of 17,236 patients, or 1·27 per cent. of the District population.

(1) THE BARHAMPUR HOSPITAL AND DISPENSARY are both situated in the same building. The institution was founded in January 1855, and its advantages are estimated to extend to a population of 39,866 persons. The dispensary buildings and the necessary offices are in good repair, and there is ample accommodation for both male and female patients. The income derived from subscriptions is small; but at the close of 1872 there was a capital invested of nearly £4000, bearing as yearly interest £159, 14s. 0d. In 1871, the in-patients treated numbered 238, and the out-patients 4008; in 1872, these numbers were 352 and 4959 respectively, showing an increase of more than 1000 during the year. In 1871,

there were 45 deaths among the in-patients, or 18·90 per cent. of the total number; in 1872, the number had diminished to 38, giving an average death-rate of only 10·79. In 1871, the total income, including balance in hand, amounted to £757, 6s. 7d.; and the expenditure, exclusive of the cost of European medicines, to £403, 16s. 4d.; the cost to Government, in the form of salaries, etc., and medicines, was £264, 17s. 4d. In 1872, the total income amounted to £652, 2s. 0d.; the expenditure to £954, 6s. 0d., of which Government paid £244. According to a further analysis, it appears that in this latter year the amount of local subscriptions was only £40, 12s. 0d., or about 4 per cent. of the total expenditure.

(2) THE MURSHIDABAD CITY DISPENSARY was established in 1840, apparently on the condition that the Nawáb Názím, who gave the original building, should keep it in repair, and subscribe £20 per annum toward the general expenses, while the remainder of the cost should be defrayed by Government. The population of the city numbers 46,182, but the attendance on the dispensary is much smaller than might be expected. A midwifery department has been established, in which the number of cases treated averages about 12 in the year. Besides the *dháí*, or professional midwife, there is a pupil who has voluntarily attached herself for the purpose of learning the art. Both these women are native Christians. During the year 1872 important improvements were made in the buildings. A large midwifery ward was built, with a broad verandah in front and an inner room behind; a new dead-house was constructed in the outer yard, secluded, but yet convenient; and the whole dispensary was thoroughly repaired and put in excellent order. In 1871, the in-patients treated numbered 108, and the out-patients 6147; in 1872, these numbers were 79 and 5237 respectively. The decrease is attributed to the protracted sickness and death of the native surgeon in charge. In 1871, the number of deaths was 18, or 16·66 per cent. of the total of in-door patients treated; and in 1872 the deaths numbered 20, or 25·31 per cent. In 1871, the total income amounted to £604, 3s. 11d.; the expenditure to £329, 4s. 11d.; the cost to Government was £315, 5s. 4d. In 1872, the total income was £351, 10s. 0d.; the expenditure £612, 18s. 0d.; and the cost to Government £304, 2s. 0d.

(3) THE AZIMGANJ DISPENSARY was founded in 1866 by Rái

Dhanpat Sinh Bahádur, and is entirely supported by him, with the exception of instruments and medicines supplied by Government. His contributions amount to a little over £160 a year. He has lately added a ward for incurable or moribund cases, and made other minor improvements. The sick from the *thanás* of Asánpur and Mánullábázár attend this dispensary; the total population of these two *thánás* being about 36,000. The Civil Surgeon of the District views with some suspicion the statistics of this dispensary. In 1871, the in-patients treated numbered 137, and the out-patients 2327; in 1872, these numbers were 134 and 2301 respectively, showing a small decrease in the total. In 1871, there were 11 deaths among the in-patients, or 8·03 of the total number; in 1872, the deaths were 34, or 25·37 per cent. In 1871, the income amounted to £170, 16s. 8d.; the expenditure also to £170, 16s. 8d.; the cost to Government was only £10, 3s. od. In 1872, the income was £192, 12s. od.; the expenditure also £192, 12s. od.; and cost to Government £21, 6s. od.

(4) THE JANGIPUR BRANCH DISPENSARY was first founded in 1864, and re-organized in 1873. Up to the latter date, it had been merely a small and not very efficient establishment, in connection with the subdivisional lock-up. But at the commencement of 1873, a meeting of the respectable inhabitants was held, who guaranteed a local subscription of £50 per annum, and forwarded a request to Government for a separate dispensary under a special native doctor. The population of the three *thánás* which furnish the patients of this dispensary is about 160,000. It must be recollected that the following statistics refer to years prior to the movement just described. In 1871, the number of out-patients treated was 916, and in 1872, 1234, showing a considerable increase. There is no accommodation for in-door patients at Jangipur. In 1871, the total income amounted to £25, 16s. 7d.; the expenditure also to £25, 16s. 7d.; the cost to Government was £13, 8s. 1d. In 1872, the income was £35; the expenditure, £24, 12s. od.; and the cost to Government £12. In 1871, only £7, 16s. od. was collected in subscriptions; and at the close of the year the establishment was found to be in debt to the native doctor. In 1872, the improvement commenced; a total of £23 was collected, and a balance of £10, 7s. 10d. was carried over for the following year.

(5) THE KANDI BRANCH DISPENSARY was established in April 1866. The little town of Kándí is situated between the two *thánás*

of Bharatpur and Khargáon, which contain a total population of about 190,000. The dispensary is well supported by local subscriptions, owing to the exertions of the native surgeon. The Kándí municipality gives £50 a year. The Páikpárá estate, now under the Court of Wards, also contributes largely; in 1872, the Maháráni made a special donation of £50. In 1871, the number of out-door patients was 2964; and in 1872, 2940. Acommodation for in-door patients at Kándí is now under consideration. In 1871, the total income amounted to £160; the expenditure to £146, 3s. 8d.; the cost to Government, £6, 17s. od. In 1872, the income was £209, 14s. od.; the expenditure, £160, 18s. od.; and the cost to Government, £18, 8s. od. In 1872, the subscriptions from Europeans amounted to £1, 10s. od., and those from natives to £184, 16s. od.

(6) THE LALGOLA DISPENSARY was founded in 1872 by the heir to the Lálgolá Ráj, who supports the establishment entirely at his own charges. There is suitable acommodation for in-door patients. No statistics are available; but when the Civil Surgeon visited the place in the early part of 1873, he found everything proceeding in the most satisfactory manner, and ascertained that the average number of sick treated daily was eighty out-door and eight in-door patients.

The statistics of all the dispensaries in the District are given in a tabular form on the following page.

LUNATIC ASYLUMS.—There are two Government lunatic asylums in Murshidábád District; one at Máidapur, about three miles from the civil station, an old and unhealthy building; the other, capable of accommodating 230 patients, forms a portion of the old Barhampur barracks, which have lately been appropriated to this use. It was originally contemplated that the new asylum should take over the patients from the old, and that the Máidapur building should be entirely disused. But this plan has been abandoned for the present, owing to the great increase in the number of lunatics who become chargeable to Government. During the past eleven years this number has almost doubled itself; and consequently, on the opening of the Barhampur asylum, it was immediately occupied by the overflow from the crowded asylums in other parts of Bengal, and the Máidapur asylum remains as full as ever.

In the year 1874 the statistics of the Máidapur asylum were as follow:—Total treated, 98; cured, 14; transferred to friends, 4; died,

[*Sentence continued on page* 251.

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF DISPENSARIES IN MURSHIDABAD DISTRICT FOR THE YEAR 1872.

DISPENSARIES.	Date of Establishment.	IN-DOOR PATIENTS.							OUT-DOOR PATIENTS.		OPERATIONS.		INCOME.						TOTAL EXPENDITURE.		
		Total Treated.	Cured or Relieved.	Not Improved or ceased to Attend.	Died.	Remaining in Hospital.	Percentage of Deaths to Treated.	Daily Average Number of Sick.	Total Treated.	Average Daily Attendance.	Major.	Minor.	Government Contribution.			Subscriptions, Donations, etc.			Total Income.		
													£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1. Barhampur, . . .	1855	352	248	48	38	18	10·79	16·31	4959	52·03	20	132	244	0	0	408	2	0	652	2	0	954	6	0
2. Murshidábád City, . .	1840	79	50	2	20	7	25·31	5·06	5237	41·71	4	191	304	2	0	47	8	0	351	10	0	612	18	0
3. Azímganj, . . .	1866	134	71	24	34	5	25·37	6·01	2301	25·79	9	191	21	6	0	171	6	0	192	12	0	192	12	0
4. Jangipur (Branch), . .	1864	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1234	14·09	6	87	12	0	0	23	0	0	35	0	0	24	12	0
5. Jamuákándí (Branch), .	1866	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2940	52·3	33	186	18	8	0	191	6	0	209	14	0	160	18	0
Total, . . .	...	565	369	74	92	30	16·28	...	16,671	...	72	787	599	16	0	841	2	0	1440	18	0	1945	6	0

A sixth Dispensary at Lálgolá was opened at the close of 1872, but no statistics are available.

Sentence continued from page 249.]
5, or 6·6 per cent; daily average strength, 75·11; daily average sick, 3·23. So far as possible, the lunatics are employed in gardening. The Barhampur asylum was first opened towards the close of 1874, and was to a great extent occupied by patients transferred from Dalandá and Patná. It is capable of accommodating 230 patients. During the few months of 1874 that it was open, the statistics were: Total treated, 118; cured, *nil;* transferred to friends, 1; died, 6; daily average strength, 82·3; daily average sick, 6. In explanation of the comparatively large number of deaths, it is stated that all the patients who died were, with one exception, over forty years of age; and that half died within a month after arrival in the asylum.

CATTLE DISEASES.—Murshidábád District is liable to be visited frequently and severely by various forms of cattle disease; but, apparently, not to a greater extent than the neighbouring Districts. There is no accurate record preserved of these several visitations, nor of the mortality caused by them. The Cattle Plague Commissioners of 1870 visited several villages in the District, and received universal testimony that frequent outbreaks of the disease called *mátá basanta* or *gutí* prevailed. This disease is a species of cattle small-pox, identified by the Commissioners with the rinderpest of Europe, and generally terminates fatally, as no remedial measures are adopted. The symptoms are thus described:—Dry muzzle; discharge from eyes and nose; ears drooping; miliary eruptions all over the body; eyes œdematous; excoriation of gums and floor of mouth; cough; loss of appetite, with difficulty in swallowing; offensive breath; purging of blood and mucus. The eruptions and the purging commence on about the third or fourth day; and the cattle die from the third to the fifteenth day. The disease is admitted to be contagious, but segregation, as a preventive measure, is altogether beyond the abilities of the *rayats.* In one village visited by the Commissioners, out of 112 cattle, 66 had been attacked, and 56 died, as well as 5 or 6 sheep. One of the informants, a village *mandal* aged ninety years, stated that he had seen the disease four times in his life, of which the first occasion was when he was ten years old. It was said to occur most commonly in February and March. In some villages the disease was called *dákráj*, but more usually *basanta.* The Commissioners print a return, from which it appears that between 14th June and 5th December 1870, in 95 villages, 2205 cattle were attacked, and 1441 or 65·3 died. A

second disease called *khurá*, to be identified with foot-and-mouth disease, was also stated to be of common occurrence; but it very rarely proves fatal. I gather from another source that there was an outbreak of cattle-murrain in the spring of 1864, shortly after the Alípur exhibition, and that on this occasion the Nawáb Názím lost several valuable animals.

Considerable interest is attached to the first recorded outbreak of *mátá* or rinderpest at Murshidábád in 1832, from the circumstance that it was attempted at that time to find in the pustules which covered the diseased cattle a substitute for vaccine lymph. Dr. Macpherson, then Superintendent of Vaccination at Murshidábád, apparently relying upon the circumstance that the natives applied to the disease among the cattle the same term which they used for human small-pox, determined that it could be nothing else than natural cow-pox. He selected some cows suffering under the malady, clothed them in blankets, and removing the crusts which he found developed on the udder on the ninth and tenth days of the disease, used these to vaccinate children, and succeeded in producing a vesicle, to all appearance vaccine. From the vesicle so created, lymph was taken, sent all over India, and used for vaccination. This discovery took the medical men of India by surprise, and produced no little agitation at the time. Efforts were made elsewhere to imitate Dr. Macpherson's practice, until the disastrous results that followed upon the experiments in Sylhet overthrew the entire hypothesis on which it was founded.

Family History of the Seths of Murshidabad.—In some of my Accounts of other Districts, there have been given brief sketches of the family history of the leading landowners. In Murshidábád, the banking house of Jagat Seth occupies a position of hereditary dignity superior to that of any *zamíndár*; and its history is connected with some of the most critical revolutions in Bengal, both during the Muhammadan and English rule. The Seths have been not unworthily called 'the Rothschilds of India,' and Burke said of them that 'their transactions were as extensive as those of the Bank of England.' The following paragraphs are partly based upon materials supplied by the present representative of the family, through the intervention of Rájá Prasanna Náráyan Deb Bahádur, the Nizámat Díwán of the Nawáb. It must, however, be recollected, that all the original family papers are said to have been destroyed by a fire in the beginning of the present century.

The Seths do not trace their antiquity further back than for about two hundred years. They are of Rájput descent, belonging to the well-known tribe of Márwáris, the Jews of India, as they have been called, whose hereditary enterprise carries them as traders to every part of the country. Like their tribe-fellows, they were originally Jains, of the Svetámbara sect, and some of them have been munificent donors to the temples on Párasnáth hill. (See the Statistical Account of Hazáribágh District, vol. xvi. pp. 223–227.) The original home of the family is said to have been at Nagar, a town of some importance in the Rájput State of Jodhpur. Towards the close of the seventeenth century, Hirá-nand Saho, to whom the Seths refer their ancestry, migrated from his native city in search of wealth, as so many Rájput and Hindustání families have done. He settled at Patná, which was then the second greatest emporium in the lower valley of the Ganges, and the site of factories of the Portuguese, Dutch, and English. To Hirá-nand Saho were born seven sons, who seem to have all followed their father's profession, and established banking firms in different parts of India. The eldest of the seven, Mánik Chand, who betook himself to Dacca, is regarded as the founder of the Seth family. Dacca was at that time the seat of the Muhammadan Government, and the natural centre of attraction to an enterprising man. When Murshid Kulí Khán, in 1704, transferred the capital to Murshidábád, the banker followed his patron, and became the most influential personage at the new court. It would seem that Mánik Chand was the right-hand man of the Nawáb in all his financial reforms, and also in his private affairs. The establishment of the mint at Murshidábád, by which the city was conspicuously marked as the new capital of Bengal, was rendered easy by the command of specie possessed by the banker. The same qualification perhaps suggested, as it certainly facilitated, the fundamental change introduced by Murshid Kulí Khán, in accordance with which the *zamíndárs*, or other collectors of revenue, paid the land tax by monthly instalments at Murshidábád. These payments passed through the hands of Mánik Chand, and it was through him also that the annual revenue of one *kror* and fifty *lákhs* of rupees (£1,500,000) was annually remitted to the Mughul Emperor; whether in specie, as stated by Stewart (*History of Bengal*, p. 238), or in drafts and orders, drawn by Mánik Chand on the corresponding firm of his brother in Dehli, as is suggested in the family history. The coffers of Mánik Chand were, moreover, the depositary of the

private hoards of the Nawáb; and on the death of the latter, it is said that five *krors* of rupees remained yet unpaid. Under these circumstances, it is easy to believe that the influence of the banker became almost as great as that of the Governor. On the one hand, Murshid Kulí Khán is said to have obtained for Mánik Chand the title of 'Seth' or banker from the Emperor Farrukh-Siyyar, in 1715. While, on the other hand, it is asserted in the family history that Mánik Chand had previously 'helped Murshid Kulí to purchase the continuance of his office of Nawáb of Bengal, after the death of Aurangzeb.' It is at least certain that from this time the banker and his descendants were recognised as permanent members of the Nawáb's Council, that their influence was of chief importance in deciding the result of every dynastic revolution, and that they were always in constant communication with the ministers of the Dehli Court.

Mánik Chand had no children, and he resolved to adopt his nephew Fathi Chand, the head of the firm at Dehli, who had also received the title of Seth. The latter was in high favour with the Emperor Farrukh-Siyyar, who lay under heavy pecuniary obligations to the firm. Mánik Chand died full of wealth and honours, in 1722; and his adopted son at once took his position as the richest banker in India, and the most influential man in matters of finance. On the occasion of his first visit to Dehli, the Emperor Muhammad Sháh conferred on him the title of 'Jagat Seth,' or 'the banker of the world.' This occurrence took place in 1724. According to another account, this title was granted by Farrukh-Siyyar; but it is admitted by all that Fathi Chand was the first of the family to bear the name of Jagat Seth, which has since become so well known in history. The family chronicle proceeds to state that 'he was held in such honour at court, that it was proposed to supersede Murshid Kulí Khán, who then lay under the imperial displeasure, and to appoint Fathi Chand to the Government of Bengal. But the banker refused to occupy the post that was filled by the great patron of his family, and by means of his friendly offices procured a pardon for the Nawáb. In the *farmán* issued on this occasion, it was expressly stated that the imperial grace was only exercised in consideration for the earnest prayers of Fathi Chand, with whom the Nawáb was instructed to consult henceforward on all matters of State.' The Court favour towards Fathi Chand's family was hereditary. A *khilát* was never sent to the Názim

of Bengal, without a similar favour being conferred on Jagat Seth. A fine emerald seal was for many years preserved in the family, as a present from the Emperor, engraved with the title of *jagat seth.*

On the death of Murshid Kulí Khán in 1725, the new Nawáb, Shujá-ud-Daulá, appointed Fathi Chand to be one of his four Councillors of State, and seems to have submitted to his advice during all the fourteen years of his peaceful rule. On the accession of Sarfaráz Khán in 1739, the banker retained his position in the Council; but the voluptuous passions of the Nawáb led to a rupture, which is thus described in Orme's *History of British India:*[1]— 'There was a family of Gentoo merchants at Muxadavad, whose head, Juggut-Seat, had raised himself from no considerable origin to be the wealthiest banker in the empire, in most parts of which he had agents supplied with money for remittances, from whom he constantly received good intelligence of what was transacting in the governments in which they were settled. In Bengal his influence was equal to that of any officer of the administration; for by answering to the treasury as security for most of the renters farming the lands of the province, he knew better than any one all the details of the revenues; while the great circulation of wealth which he commanded rendered his assistance necessary in every emergency of expense. His eldest son was married to a woman of exquisite beauty, the report alone of which inflamed the curiosity of the Nawáb so much, that he insisted on seeing her, although he knew the disgrace which would be fixed on the family by showing a wife unveiled to a stranger. Neither the remonstrances of the father, nor his power to avenge the indignity, availed to divert the Nabob from this insolent and futile resolution. The young woman was sent to the palace in the evening, and after staying there a short space, returned, unviolated indeed, but dishonoured, to her husband.' Such is the cause commonly assigned to account for the fact that Jagat Seth fell away from the Nawáb Sarfaráz Khán, the last heir of the great Murshid Kulí Khán, the patron of his family, and joined himself to the adventurer Alí Vardí Khán. But the Seth family give another explanation, which they regard as more honourable to their ancestor. They say that Murshid Kulí Khán had, in the course of business, deposited with Mánik Chand a sum of seven *krors* of rupees, which had never been

[1] Madras Reprint, 1861, vol. ii. pp. 29, 30.

repaid. When Sarfaráz Khán, on his accession, pressed for payment, Fathi Chand begged for a reasonable interval for its liquidation, and, in the meanwhile, leagued himself with Alí Vardí Khán, who was already preparing for revolt in Behar. The successful issue of this revolution has already been described, in connection with the history of Murshidábád.

Fathí Chand died in the year 1744, and was succeeded in his title of Jagat Seth by his grandson, Máhtab Rái. His two sons had died in his lifetime, but each had left a son; and the two cousins, Máhtab Rái, the son of the elder brother, and Swarúp Chand, the son of the younger, who received the title of Mahárájá, conjointly entered upon the inheritance of wealth and influence. The affairs of the Seths were now at their highest tide of prosperity. They are said to have possessed a capital of ten *krors* of rupees, or ten millions sterling. When the Marhattas, under Bháskar Pandit, plundered the suburbs of Murshidábád in 1742, it is stated, even in some English histories, that 'the banking-house of Jagat Seth was despoiled of two *krors* and a half of rupees.' Stewart, in his *History of Bengal*, reduces this incredible figure to three *lákhs*. Ghulám Husáin, the author of the *Sair-i-Mutákhharim*, and who was intimate with the Nawáb, asserts that 'the Seths could meet at sight a draft for a *kror* of rupees (one million sterling).' The native tradition estimates their wealth by saying that they could have, if they chose, blocked up with rupees the head of the Bhágirathí at Súti. Among the modes by which their profits were gained may be mentioned the receipt of the revenue of Bengal and its transmission to Dehli, the exchange on depreciated currency, and transactions with European merchants. There were in those days no treasuries scattered over the country in the several Districts. The *zamíndárs* collected the revenue, and remitted it to the viceregal treasury at Murshidábád. Every year, at the time of Punyá, or annual settlement of the revenue, a custom introduced by Murshid Kulí Khán, all the *zamíndárs* assembled at the bank of the Seths, in order to settle their accounts, adjust the difference of *báttá* or discount, and negotiate for a fresh supply of funds. From a report on this subject by Mr. Batson in 1760, in the *Selections from Unpublished Records*, it appears that Jagat Seth had the privilege of having his money stamped at the Murshidábád mint, on paying a duty of ½ per cent. 'By which privilege, and by his great wealth and influence in the country, he

reaps the great benefit arising from the above-mentioned practice (*báttá*); and the Nawáb finds it convenient to indulge him therein, in recompense for the loans and exactions to which he obliges him to submit.' With regard to the dealings of the firm with European merchants, an element of confusion is introduced by the circumstance that the term 'Seth' means merely banker, and that there may very well have been other money-dealers of this name besides the great Jagat Seth. The same possibility of error has already been commented on, in connection with a caste returned as Seths in the Census Report. Mr. Long, in his essay on 'The Banks of the Bhágiráthí,' states that 'we find that in 1680 the Seths were a great family, and employed in supplying piece goods to the English merchants.' On this it may be remarked that the title of Seth was first conferred on Mánik Chand by imperial grant in 1715. The same authority affirms that 'there was a family of Seths in Calcutta in 1717, who were very instrumental in bringing it into the form of a town.' In the *Selections from Unpublished Records of Government*, edited by Mr. Long, there is another allusion to the Seths, as native merchants at Calcutta. The record bears date 1748, and describes the Seths as coming before the Board, and objecting to the employment of certain other merchants, as being of a different caste to themselves. Ultimately the usual advance was made to the Seths, on the ground 'that they are people who have lived long in this place, and are entirely under the protection of the English.' The editor unhesitatingly identifies these Seths with Jagat Seth of Murshidábád; but in the face of the difficulties presented by the above quotation, it is hardly necessary to point out that this identification is very improbable. This question may be settled by reference to another record, dated May 30, 1751, containing the following letter, which merits quotation in full, as illustrating the relations at that time between the English and the Nawáb. The letter is addressed to the President of Council, and signed by Alí Vardí Khán:—'I have heard that Rámkrishna Seth, who lives in Calcutta, has carried goods to that place, without paying the Murshidábád *sáyer chaukí* duties. I am greatly surprised, and imagine he stands in no fear of anybody; for which reason I write you, and send a *chobdár* to bring him, and desire you will be speedy in delivering him over, as he may be soon here. Be expeditious, and act exactly as I have wrote.' To this peremptory demand, the President replied that

Seth's father and grandfather were all *dádaní* merchants to the Company (*i.e.* contractors under advance to deliver goods), and that, as he was a great debtor to the Company, he could not surrender him. It is evident that this family of Seths is identical with that so often referred to by Mr. Long, and no less evident that they had nothing to do with Jagat Seth. The dealings of the Murshidábád firm with Europeans were rather in the form of lending money than receiving advances. There is a passage in Orme's *History of Hindustán* (vol. ii. p. 138), which bears every mark of verisimilitude. In connection with Clive's attack on Chandernagar, it is stated that 'the French had many friends at the court of the Nawáb; amongst others the Seths, Mootabray and Roopchund (Máhtab Raí and Swarúp Chand), to whom the Government of Chandernagar was indebted for a million and a half of rupees.' It also deserves to be mentioned, in illustration of this point, that it is firmly believed to this day by the natives of Bengal that the Seths advanced large sums of money to the English, prior to the battle of Plassey; and that 'the rupees of the Hindu banker, equally with the sword of the English colonel, contributed to the overthrow of the Muhammadan power in Bengal.' The real part played by Jagat Seth in the revolution against Siráj-ud-Daula will be described subsequently.

The *Selections from Unpublished Records of Government* contain a few allusions to the Seths during the rule of Alí Vardí Khán. In 1749, when the Nawáb blockaded the factory of Kásimbázár, to enforce satisfaction for wrongs suffered by the Armenian merchants, the English only got off by paying 'through the Seths' Rs. 1,200,000 to the Nawáb; of which sum 'the two favourites' appear to have retained a certain proportion. In 1753, in answer to the Court of Directors, who were pressing on the Council to obtain the establishment of a mint in Calcutta, the President wrote, 'It would be impracticable to effect it with the Nawáb, as an attempt of that kind would be immediately overset by Jagat Seth, even at the expense of a much larger sum than we could afford; he being the sole purchaser of all the bullion that is imported into this province, by which he is annually a very considerable gainer.' The President, however, suggested that an effort might be made to gain the permission direct from the court of Dehli. This would require at least Rs. 200,000, 'And the affair must be carried on with the greatest secrecy, that Jagat Seth's house

might not have the least intimation of it.' In 1758, the year after the establishment of the Calcutta mint, we find Mr. Douglas, a large creditor of the Company, absolutely refusing to take payment in Calcutta *sikkás*, on the ground that 'his fortune would be daily exposed to being curtailed from 5 to 10 per cent. at the pleasure of Jagat Seth, who has the sole management of the current money of the country, and can always make it fluctuate in such a manner as he sees convenient for his purpose.'

The Nawáb Alí Vardí Khán died in 1756, and forthwith the Seths were brought into much closer intercourse with the English. The negotiations with Siráj-ud-Daulá, after the capture of Calcutta, were to a large extent carried on through the agency of the Seths. Unlike some of the other negotiators, the bankers would seem never to have played, or to have threatened to play, the part of traitors, nor to have stipulated for any excessive share in the enormous sum of money which concluded the bargain. We first hear of the Seths as in communication with the English at the time when the fugitive Bengal Council had met on board a schooner off Faltá. Calcutta was taken on 22d June; and on August 22 the Council resolved to write a complimentary letter to Jagat Seth, amongst others, that he might intercede for them with the Nawáb. In the consultations dated 5th September, there is a good deal of curious information. Uma Charan (Omichund), for reasons of his own, had refused to forward the letter to Jagat Seth. Mr. Bisdom, the Dutch Governor of Kásimbázár, and Warren Hastings, who was still permitted his liberty at the same place, sent important political news from Murshidábád. The Nawáb of Purniah, supported by a faction at Dehli, had declared against Siráj-ud-Daulá; and Mír Jafar, with other officers, had been sent to oppose him. They had, however, returned on account of a quarrel between Siráj-ud-Daulá and Jagat Seth. The Nawáb had reproached the banker for not obtaining for him the *farmán* (imperial ratification of his office), and had ordered him to raise from the merchants three *krors* of rupees. Jagat Seth pleaded the hardships of the already oppressed people, but received a blow in the face, and was confined. Mír Jafar insisted upon his being set at liberty, but in vain. With this little episode it would not be difficult to connect the easy victory at Plassey. On 23d November, the Council, who were still at Faltá, instructed Major Kilpatrick to write again to Jagat Seth, 'to let him know that their dependence was upon him, and upon him alone, for the hopes they

had of resettling in an amicable manner.' After the arrival of Colonel Clive, and the recapture of Calcutta, the Seths are not heard of until fresh negotiations were opened with the Nawáb, in order to lead to the isolation of Chandernagar. 'Owing to the exasperation of the Nawáb, the Seths,' says Orme (vol. ii. p. 128), 'were afraid to appear openly as friends to the English; but they deputed their ablest agent, Ranjít Rái, to attend the Nawáb, and ordered him to correspond with Colonel Clive.' The treaty of February 1757, by which Siráj-ud-Daulá granted the demands of the English, was effected by this person. After the taking of Chandernagar by Clive, a quarrel with the Nawáb again became imminent, and the first overture for the overthrow of Siráj-ud-Daulá came from the Seths. On 23d April, the day before the same proposals were made on behalf of Mír Jafar, a Muhammadan officer, named Yar Lattief Khán, requested to confer in secret with Mr. Watts, the resident at Kásimbázár. This man commanded 2000 horse in the Nawáb's service, but received a stipend from the Seths to defend them on any occasion of danger, even against the Nawáb himself. He brought a proposal for betraying Murshidábád to the English with the help of the Seths, which ultimately ripened into the plot by which Mír Jafar was raised to the *masnad*. The part played by the Seths in the course of this conspiracy cannot now be accurately determined. It is known that Yar Lattief Khán continued to act for them in the matter, and that it was in their house at Murshidábád on 30th June 1757, seven days after the battle of Plassey, that the arrangements for carrying out the pecuniary bargain were concluded, and 'the trick of the red treaty' was disclosed. History does not say whether the Seths either gained or lost by these transactions. The position, however, which the family continued to occupy under the new order of things may be estimated from the following circumstance. In September 1759, when the Nawáb Mír Jafar paid a visit to Calcutta, he was accompanied by Jagat Seth, and they were both lavishly entertained for four days at the expense of the Company. The charges for the Nawáb on this occasion amounted to nearly Rs. 80,000; and Arcot rupees 17,374 were expended on the entertainment of Jagat Seth.

It is from about this time that the misfortunes of the Seths began. They had assisted in raising Mír Jafar to the *masnad*, but they were unable to satisfy his continuous demands for money. One of their quarrels with the Nawáb is thus narrated and commented

on by Malcolm, in his *Life of Lord Clive*:—'Jagat Seth and his brother [cousin (?)] had obtained leave to proceed on a pilgrimage to Párasnáth, and had commenced their journey, when information was received that they were in correspondence with the Sháhzádá (who was at that time threatening to invade Behar), and had actually furnished him with the means of paying his new levies. The Nawáb, giving credit to this report, sent to stop them; but they refused compliance with his order, and proceeded under the guard of 2000 men, who had been furnished for their escort. These troops, on receiving a promise of the liquidation of their arrears, readily transferred their allegiance from the prince to the bankers. The Nawáb, even if he had had the disposition, would probably have found himself without the means of coercing these wealthy subjects into submission. The principal bankers of India command, through the influence of their extensive credit, the respect of sovereigns and the support of their principal ministers and generals. Their property, though often immense, is seldom in a tangible form. Their great profits enable them to bear moderate exactions; and the prince, who has recourse to violence towards one of this class, is not only likely to fail in his immediate object of plunder, but is certain to destroy his future resources, and to excite an impression of his character that must greatly facilitate those attempts against his life and power to which it is the lot of despots to be continually exposed.'

Mír Jafar was deposed by the English in October 1760, and his son-in-law, Mír Kásim, was set up in his place. The energy displayed by the new Nawáb in all matters was extended to his treatment of the Seths. As soon as his relations with the English became critical, he confined the two cousins who were at the head of the firm, Máhtab Rái Jagat Seth and Maharájá Swarúp Chand, at Murshidábád; and after a short time carried them away with him to his new stronghold of Monghyr. The English immediately remonstrated against this act, which was, no doubt, aimed at preventing intrigues between them and the Seths. The relations between the Council at Calcutta and the Seths would seem to have continued from the first very cordial; and just previous to this date there is a good deal of amicable correspondence between the two parties preserved in the records. The following is the protest from the Governor to the Nawáb in the Persian department, dated 24th April 1763:—'I am just informed by a letter from Mr. Amyatt that "Muhammad Takí

Khán went on the 21st inst. at night to the house of Jagat Seth and Swarúp Chand, and carried them to Hirájhil, where he keeps them under a guard." This affair surprises me greatly. When your Excellency took the government upon yourself, you and I and the Seths being assembled together, it was agreed that as they are men of high rank in the country, you shall make use of their assistance in managing your affairs, and never consent that they should be injured; and when I had the pleasure of seeing you at Monghyr, I then likewise spoke to you about them, and you set my heart at ease by assuring me that you would on no account do them any injury. The taking men of their rank in such an injurious manner out of their home is extremely improper, and is disgracing them in the highest degree. It is, moreover, a violation of our agreement, and therefore reflects dishonour upon you and me, and will be the means of acquiring us an ill name from everybody. The abovementioned gentlemen were never thus disgraced in the time of any former Názíms.' As is well known, this remonstrance was unavailing. After the defeat of Udá-nálá, Mír Kásim's wrath was turned against his prisoners. About the same time as the massacre of the English at Patná, the two Seths were also cruelly put to death (see p. 191).

The two cousins were succeeded by their two sons, Seth Khushál Chand, the eldest son of Máhtab Rái, who was confirmed in the title of Jagat Seth by the Emperor Sháh Alam in 1766; and Seth Udwat Chand, the eldest son of Swarúp Chand, who also was permitted to inherit his father's title of Maharájá. It would appear that the two new heads of the firm were as united in all their dealings as their fathers had been; and that, like them, they were commonly regarded as brothers. In a letter from them conjointly to Lord Clive in May 1765, they represent in piteous language their distressed situation, and especially complain of the hardships suffered by their younger brothers, Seth Guláb Chand and Bábu Mahir Chand. So far as can be ascertained, these brothers were really second cousins one to the other, being younger sons of the two Seths who had been murdered by Mír Kásim. They had been carried off together with their fathers, and had been finally handed over to the tender mercies of the Emperor of Dehli and the Wazír of Oudh. We find that Mír Jafar, the reinstated Nawáb of Bengal, had been induced to intercede for them with the Wazír; but they were not delivered back to their brethren at Murshidábád until

a heavy ransom had been paid. The Seths represented their impoverishment on this account to Lord Clive, but he replied to them in the following stern letter, dated November 1765 :—'You are not ignorant what attention and support I always showed to your father, and how cordially I have continued it to you and the remainder of the family. It cannot, therefore, but be matter of great concern to me to learn that you do not seriously consider what part you ought to act, to establish your own credit and the public interest. Instead of keeping up to the original intention and necessity of having the treasury under three separate keys, I find all the money has been lodged with your family in your own house, and that you have been consenting at least to the farming of the Bengal province under the rents I am assured it will bear. I am informed also that you have been pressing the *zamíndárs* to discharge their debts to your fathers, at a time when they are five months in arrear to the Government. This is a step I can by no means approve of, or allow. You are still a very rich house; but I greatly fear that tendency you seem to have to avarice will not only turn greatly to your disadvantage, but at the same time destroy that opinion I had of your inclination and disposition to promote the public good.' In the following year the Seths laid a claim before the English for between 50 and 60 *lákhs* of rupees; of which the sum of 21 *lákhs* had been advanced to Mír Jafar for the support of his own and the English army. For this latter sum Lord Clive accepted the liability, and suggested that it should be repaid in equal moieties by the Company and the Nawáb. In the same year it is incidentally recorded that the Council had been under the necessity of applying to the Seths for a lóan of 1½ *lákhs* of rupees.

When Lord Clive received from the Emperor, Sháh Alam, the grant of the *díwání* on behalf of the Company in 1765, he immediately appointed Khushál Chand Jagat Seth, who was then only eighteen years old, to be the Company's *sarraf* or shroff; and in the treaties of 1766 and 1770, which confirm the appointments of two successive Nawábs, Jagat Seth is mentioned as one of the three ministers who were entrusted with the supreme management of affairs.

Native tradition dates the decline of the Seths from the time of Khushál Chand. It is said that he refused an annual stipend of 3 *lákhs* of rupees which was offered to him by Clive; and that his own expenses were at the rate of one *lákh* per month. He died

at the early age of thirty-nine; but, during his lifetime, he had been the most lavish benefactor of all his family to the sacred hill of Párasnáth. The oldest and most celebrated temple there is thought to have been built by him. The images within bear a Sanskrit inscription, showing that they were placed there in 1768 by Shuogal Chand and Hoshiyal Chand. This is the temple now maintained by the *panchâyat* of Murshidábád merchants. In a temple on the slope of the hill the images all show by their inscriptions that they were consecrated in 1765 by Shuogal Chand Jagat Seth; and each one of the many *gumtis* or petty shrines, which are scattered over the hill, purports to have been consecrated in 1768 by the same man, who is apparently a brother of Khushál Chand. Another of the three chief temples is inscribed with the date 1816, and the name of Rúp Chand Jagat Seth; and this apparently is the only temple still kept up at the expense of the family. It is stated to be in connection with the Digambara sect of Jains, but it is universally acknowledged that the Seths themselves used to belong to the rival sect of Svetámbaras. The prodigal expenditure of the Seths, as indicated by these religious donations, may have contributed to drain the inherited resources of the family, but the real cause of their ruin must be sought in the change which was now taking place in the Government of Bengal. The great famine of 1770, which completely revolutionized the whole financial condition of the country, first impaired their influence; and finally in 1772, when Warren Hastings transferred to Calcutta the Khálsá or Government Treasury, they ceased to be any longer the bankers of the English. Instead of accounting for their downfall by these adequate causes, the Seths themselves prefer to rely upon the following story. The vast treasures of the family, they say, had been kept buried under the ground by Khushál Chand, and when death came upon him suddenly, he found himself unable to disclose the secret.

Like many other members of the family, Khushál Chand was childless. He adopted his nephew, Harakh Chand, upon whom the title of Jagat Seth was conferred by the English, without any reference to Dehli. It is said that he was in pecuniary difficulties, until he inherited the fortune of a second uncle, Guláb Chand. Harakh Chand Jagat Seth was the first of the family who abandoned the faith of his ancestors, and embraced the creed of Vishnu. Having no son, and being very anxious to have an heir born of his own body, he had recourse to the various observances enjoined

in such a case by the Jain religion, but all to no purpose. At last he followed the advice of a Bairágí, and propitiated Vishnu. He obtained his desire, and henceforth became an acknowledged Vaishnav. It may be remarked, that the conversion from Jainism to Vishnuvism is comparatively easy. In the two creeds themselves there are not a few points of similarity, and the means of livelihood adopted by Jains and the more respectable class of Vaishnavs is identical. Though the Seths have changed their religion, and a Jain woman marrying into the family is compelled to turn Vaishnav, yet they are respected as much as before by their old co-religionists. The most orthodox Jain feels no repugnance to intermarrying with them; while the Seths, on their part, have retained many of the forms of their ancient faith, and do not perform pilgrimages to Brindában or Jagannáth. Harakh Chand left two sons, Indra Chand and Vishnu Chand, who equally divided their father's property; and the title of Jagat Seth was conferred upon the elder brother, Indra Chand. He was succeeded by his son Govind Chand, who is said to have completely dissipated the remaining wealth of his ancestors. He lived for some time on the sale of the family jewels, and finally became dependent upon a pension of £1200 a year allowed to him by the Company, in consideration of the services rendered to the English by his ancestors. He was not otherwise recognised by the Government; and the title of Jagat Seth, which had been perpetuated during five generations, became extinct with his father, Indra Chand. On the death of Govind Chand, the headship of the family, together with the pension, reduced to £800, reverted to Krishna Chand, the son of Vishnu Chand, who is now the representative of the Seths. He still lives in the old and ruined family residence in Murshidábád city; and on all public occasions, a *gadi* or seat of honour is placed for him by the side of the Nawáb.

STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF THE

DISTRICT OF PABNA.

NOTE.

SOME difficulty has been found in reducing the various *maunds* (or *mans*) to avoirdupois weight. Thus, the railway uses a *maund* of 80 lbs.; the steamers, one of $82\frac{2}{7}$ lbs.; and the Sirájganj boats, one of 84·10 lbs. As a rule, the standard of 82·35 lbs. has been used throughout this Account, when converting native weights into tons.

STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF THE

DISTRICT OF PABNA.[1]

THE DISTRICT OF PABNA, which forms the south-east corner of the Rájsháhí Kuch-Behar Division, is situated between 23° 48′ and 24° 47′ north latitude, and between 89° 03′ and 89° 56′ east longitude. The area, as returned by the Boundary Commissioner in March 1875, is 1838 square miles; and the total population, as ascertained by the Census of the 15th January 1872, is 1,211,594 souls. The Census Report gives the area at 1966 square miles; and for the sake of uniformity, this latter figure has

[1] The principal materials from which this Statistical Account has been compiled are:—(1) Five series of Special Returns furnished by the Collector in 1870 and 1871. (2) A Special Medical Return by the Civil Surgeon of Pábná. (3) A Report (dated December 1873) on the Land Tenures of Pábná, by Bábu Krishna Prasád Ghose, Deputy-Collector. (4) Report on the Census of Bengal, 1872; and the District Census Compilation, by Mr. Magrath, C.S. (5) A Statement by the Surveyor-General, giving the Latitudes and Longitudes of the principal Towns and Villages in the District. (6) A Return of the District Area and Latitudes and Longitudes by the Boundary Commissioner. (7) Report on the Administration of Bengal, 1872-73. (8) The *Statistical Reporter*, published by the Government of Bengal, November 1875 to May 1876. (9) The Income Tax Reports for 1870-71 and 1871-72. (10) The Annual Reports of the Inspector-General of Police, and the Inspector-General of Jails, for 1870-73. (11) The Annual Reports of the Director of Public Instruction for the years 1856-57, 1860-61, 1870-71, and 1871-74. (12) Annual Reports on the Charitable Dispensaries of the Lower Provinces for 1870-73. (13) Bengal Meteorological Reports for 1871, 1873, and 1874. (14) Postal Statistics, furnished by the Director-General of Post Offices. (15) *Parganá* Statistics, and other printed Reports of the Board of Revenue. (16) The Annual General Administration Reports of the Collector of Pábná, for the years 1870-75. (17) Records, Reports, and Correspondence in the Offices of the Magistrate and Collector of Pábná. The botanical names of the indigenous medical drugs, and of other plants mentioned in this Statistical Account, have been supplied by Dr. King, Superintendent of the Botanical Gardens, Calcutta.

been adopted throughout this Account, in the calculation of all averages based upon the District area. The Administrative Headquarters, and, if estimated by its population, the second town of the District, is Pábná, situated on the right bank of the river Ichhámatí, in 24° 0′ 30″ north latitude, and 89° 17′ 25″ east longitude. Sirájganj, the chief town of the District, both in population and commercial importance, and the headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name, is situated in 24° 26′ 58″ north latitude and 89° 47′ 5″ east longitude.

BOUNDARIES.—Pábná is bounded on the north by the Districts of Rájsháhí, Bográ, and Maimansinh; on the south by the river Padma or Ganges, which separates it from the Districts of Nadiyá and Faridpur; on the east by the river Jamuná, which separates it from the Districts of Maimansinh and Dacca; and on the west by the Districts of Rájsháhí and Nadiyá, the Padma or Ganges forming a natural line of demarcation between the latter District and Pábná.

JURISDICTION.—The Magisterial and Revenue jurisdictions of the District of Pábná differ considerably. In 1870 the Collector reported that, while the *tháná* (police circle) of Chátmahar was under his criminal jurisdiction, the land revenue of the whole tract of country included within that police circle was paid into the Rájsháhí treasury. At that time, also, *tháná* Ráiganj, in the Subdivision of Sirájganj, was subject to the jurisdiction of the Magistrate and Collector of Bográ, although its land revenue was paid into the Pábná treasury. At the present date (1876), however, in consequence of recent readjustments, the jurisdictions of the Magistrate and Collector are identical in all matters, except the payment of land revenue; but in nearly every police circle (*tháná*) in Pábná there are still some few estates, the revenue of which is paid into the treasury of another District.

Pábná District, when first formed in 1832, was placed under a Joint-Magistrate and Deputy-Collector; and it was not until the year 1859 that a full Magistrate and Collector was placed in charge. Since that date, numerous changes have taken place in the limits of the jurisdiction of the District officers. The most important change was the transfer, in 1862-63, of the large Subdivision of Kushtiá from Pábná to Nadiyá. On the 1st May 1871, *tháná* Pángsá was transferred from Pábná to the Goálandá Subdivision of Faridpur District; and *tháná* Kumárkhálí to the Kushtiá Subdivision of Nadiyá.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The general aspect of Pábná District is low and flat. Immense areas of rice land, each almost encircled by a belt of villages half hidden among bamboos and trees, cover seven-eighths of the cultivated surface of the country. Rivers—large and small—intersect the District; and in the rainy season there is scarcely a spot which cannot be reached by water. The scenery is neither grand nor striking; yet the succession of well-cultivated tracts of open country, broken up by clumps of trees and running streams, and surrounded by villages which are strongly built, clean, and picturesquely imbedded among foliage, is not devoid of its own special beauty. There are no mountains or hills in any part of the District.

The superficial strata of the soil are alluvial, the deeper strata being composed of clay and sand. The soil is porous and dries rapidly after the rains. Water is reached by digging to a depth of twelve or fifteen feet in the dry weather.

RIVER SYSTEM.—The District of Pábná lies at the angle formed by the confluence of the two great water-ways of Bengal, the Ganges or Padma, and the Bráhmaputra, or, as it is here called, the Jamuná. Both these two rivers are navigable throughout the year for native boats of the largest size, and also for steamers. The Baral and the Haráságar are also navigable throughout the year for boats of more than 100 *maunds*, or say 4 tons burden. Besides these rivers, the whole District is intersected by a network of minor water-courses, which are navigable throughout the rainy season.

The Padma or Ganges forms a portion of the western, and the whole of the southern boundary of Pábná. Its course within the District is 48 miles. At the village of Dogáchhí, about seven miles south-east of Pábná town, the river Ichhámatí issues from the Padma, and after passing the Civil Station, flows through the District by a tortuous route and joins the Haráságar, a short distance south of the river Baral. During the rains, the Ichhámatí is a wide and beautiful river, but for eight months in the year it is little more than a dry sandy bed; the length of its course is 32 miles. The river Jamuná forms the whole eastern boundary of the District (32 miles in length), separating Pábná from the Districts of Maimansinh and Dacca. Its principal branch within Pábná District is the Haráságar. The Baral and the Karátoyá or Phúljhúr are both branches of the Haráságar: the length of the course of the former in this District is 22 miles; of the latter, 16 miles. The junction of the Karátoyá and

the Haráságar is about fifteen miles north of the point where the latter river is joined by the Baral.

As has already been stated, almost every place in the District is accessible by water during the rains; and the Collector states that probably two-thirds of the water-courses are navigable by boats of 50 *maunds*, or say two tons burden, throughout the rainy season.

Where, in consequence of windings in the course of a river, the current sets against the river-bank, the latter is generally perpendicular; otherwise, the banks of the rivers in Pábná generally slope gently upwards from the water's edge, and either form the sites of villages and towns, or are used for cultivation. The Collector states that all the rivers expand into lakes, at one or more points in their course during the rainy season, contracting again as the cold weather advances.

In the large rivers of the District numerous *chars* have arisen, but no important islands have been formed. Neither the Padma nor the Jamuná is fordable at any time of the year; and none of the rivers or their tributaries named above is fordable during the rainy season. None of the rivers of the District is affected by the tide.

ALLUVION AND DILUVION.—Alluvion and diluvion are constantly taking place along the course of the principal rivers of the District. The Collector reports that a remarkable instance of the latter process occurred in the year 1863, when about 3465 acres of land were cut off from the estate of Balrámpur and annexed to the estates of Bhárárá and Dogáchhí. The change in the course of the Pad, which formerly flowed close to the town of Pábná, but is now (1876) about four miles distant, may also be regarded as a remarkable instance of fluvial change. Old beds of large rivers abound throughout the District. Some are dry in the rains; in others, water remains throughout the year.

FERRIES.—There are only six Government ferries in the District; three on the river Padma or Ganges, and three on the Ichhámatí. These are put up to auction annually and leased to the highest bidder. The table on the following page shows the names of the Government ferries, the rivers on which they are situated, and the amount for which they were leased in the years 1870-71 and 1875-76. The decrease in amounts realized from the ferries on the Padma is attributed to the removal of the Subdivision of Kumárkhálí from Pábná District.

FERRIES IN THE DISTRICT OF PABNA, WITH THE AMOUNT OF THEIR RENTAL IN 1870–71, AND 1875–76.

Name.	River on which situated.	Amount for which leased.	
		1870–71.	1875–76.
		£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1. Kánchádiá, . . .	Padma	60 10 0	22 10 0
2. Sátbáriá, . . .	Do.	30 0 0	3 10 0
3. Rámchandrapur, . .	Do.	12 0 0	1 16 0
4. Díwánganj, . . .	Ichhámatí	35 0 0	33 0 0
5. Rádhánagar, . .	Do.	56 10 0	65 0 0
6. Singá, ...	Do.	15 0 0	16 0 0
Total, . . .	...	209 0 0	141 16 0

LAKES, MARSHES.—The three principal permanent lakes in the District are the Bara *bil*, Sonápátilá *bil*, and Ghughudah *bil*, which are respectively twelve, six, and four square miles in area. These small lakes abound with fish and wild duck. A small prickly fruit (*senkhur*) is also found in them, and is highly esteemed by the natives. The low lands surrounding these lakes are extensively cultivated, and rich crops of paddy are grown thereon. Besides these three lakes, there are numerous smaller and more shallow bodies of water, which are little more than marshy swamps, except during the rains, and for one or two months afterwards.

The number of deaths by drowning reported by the police in the year 1870 was 198; of whom 34 were men, 24 women, and 140 children. The average annual number of deaths by drowning, during the five years 1870-74 inclusive, was 199; and of these, 34 were men, 24 women, and 141 children.

RIVER TRAFFIC.—All the large towns in the District stand on rivers, and are mainly supported by the export and import trade conducted by water. By far the most important of these towns is Sirájganj on the Jamuná, the headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name, and the greatest jute market in Bengal. In *The*

Statistical Reporter for November 1875, it is described as 'the principal seat of trade and commerce in North-Eastern Bengal, and the commercial emporium of Pábná and Western Maimansinh, and of part of Bográ, Rangpur, and Dinájpur.' The country produce of this area is collected at Sirájganj, and thence sent by boat or steamer either direct to Calcutta, or by the Eastern Bengal Railway to Calcutta, generally for export to England.

Since the 1st September 1875, the river traffic of Bengal has been systematically registered at certain fixed stations, of which Sirájganj is one. Every *mánjhi*, or other person in charge of any boat or vessel passing up or down the river, opposite the place of registration, has to state either in writing or verbally to the registering officer, the starting-place and destination of his vessel, and the approximate number of *maunds* of each kind of cargo, or the number of pieces of cargo, or the value, as the case may be, which he has on board.

The following table, compiled from the returns published monthly in *The Statistical Reporter*, shows the amount of traffic registered at the registration station of Sirájganj, during the nine months September 1875 to May 1876:—

AMOUNT OF TRAFFIC REGISTERED AT SIRAJGANJ DURING THE NINE MONTHS ENDING MAY 1876.

Months.	Class I.	Class III.
	Weight in *maunds*.	Value in Rupees.
September 1875,	802,131	107,739
October ,,	288,464	15,437
November ,,	357,940	125,273
December ,,	343,506	95,570
January 1876,	311,188	84,201
February ,,	250,732	68,771
March ,,	245,470	34,119
April ,,	251,778	59,239
May ,,	259,357	88,913
Total for nine months,	3,110,566	679,262

This table only includes Classes I. and III., according to the official system of registration; the first of which comprises those articles of which the weight only is registered; and the second, those of which the value primarily is obtained. I have omitted

Class II., comprising such articles as—timber, bamboos, cocoa-nuts, gunnies, hay, straw, bricks, and hides, of all of which only the number is registered, and not the weight or the value.

The total amount of jute registered at the several River Registration Stations in Bengal, during September 1875, was 1,511,194 *maunds*, or 55,559 tons. Of this amount the District of Pábná sent 450,476 *maunds*, or considerably more than one-fourth. But by far the greater part of the jute entered as exported from Pábná is not the produce of the District. The jute imports into Sirájganj, which amounted in September to 260,472 *maunds*, or 9,576 tons, are all re-exported to Calcutta. The jute, together with the oil-seeds and other products coming down the Jamuná, is merely transferred at Sirájganj from the small boats which ply in the north, to the larger boats which go on to Calcutta. In a similar way, a large proportion of the salt and other return cargoes sent from Calcutta is merely transferred at Sirájganj to a fresh class of boats. In October 1875, out of the total amount of jute exports registered (1,081,436 *maunds*), 151,283 *maunds* were exported from Pábná. The imports of jute into Sirájganj for re-exportation to Calcutta were in the same month 176,504 *maunds*.

Next to Sirájganj, the most important seats of trade in the District are Sháhzádpur on the Haráságar, Pábná on the Ichhámatí, Belkuchí on a branch of the Jamuná, and Ullápárá on the Phúljhúr. At all of these marts country produce is bought and sold in large quantities. The traffic is chiefly in jute, tobacco, mustard, *til*-seed (Sesamum), linseed, rice, turmeric, ginger, and hides.

On pages 334-350 will be found a full account of the commerce of the District, of which nearly the whole is river-borne.

There are no water-mills in Pábná District. Owing to the level nature of the country throughout which the smaller streams run, they could not, the Collector states, be readily used as a motive power for machinery; while the larger rivers, which run at a rate of from four to four and a half miles an hour, have 'descents or rapids so great that no dams could restrain them.'

FISHERIES.—Fisheries abound in Pábná, and the boating and fishing castes are found in every *tháná* (police circle) in the District. Every river, lake, marsh, and tank provides a supply of fish; but the Collector states that he does not know of anything corresponding to an English fishing town. The boating and fishing castes

numbered at the time of the Census 22,957 souls, or 6·4 per cent. of the total Hindu population, and 1·9 per cent. of the District population. Besides these, however, a very large number of persons, who have their own special occupations, add to their other means of support by fishing. According to the Collector's estimate, those who live wholly or partly by fishing form one-twentieth of the total population.

Fourteen fisheries in the District are held by Government, and are let out for various tenures. The total amount realized from them was £64, 16s. 0d. in the year 1870-71, and £94, 16s. 7½d. in 1874-75. For all the other fisheries in the District which are not free, rent is paid to the proprietors of the adjoining lands; and the total amount thus paid cannot, the Collector estimated in 1870, be less than £1000 per annum. The following table shows the names of the Government fisheries, with the rivers in which they are situated, and the amounts realized from them by Government in the years 1870-71 and 1874-75:—

GOVERNMENT FISHERIES IN PABNA DISTRICT, WITH THE RENTALS IN 1870–71 AND 1874–75.

Rivers.	Fisheries.	Rental. 1870-71.	Rental. 1874-75.
Baral,	1. Selendá,	£1 0 0	£2 0 0
	2. Demrá,	10 0 0	11 12 0
	3. Nág Demrá,	5 14 0	5 15 1½
	4. Pátániábát,	5 8 0	23 0 0
Cheknái,	5. Phuljáná,	0 14 0	2 18 0
	6. Nágjoár,	12 0 0	2 0 0
	7. Bádál,	1 10 0	1 14 0
	8. Kuyebási,	2 10 0	7 12 0
	9. Jagannáthpur,	8 0 0	13 2 0
	10. Kuchuá,	2 10 0	5 0 0
	11. Dhánuághátá,	2 10 0	3 12 0
	12. Porágáti,	11 0 0	14 0 0
Haráságar,	13. Sayyidábád,	1 0 0	1 7 3
Phúljhúr,	14. Erandanalká,	1 0 0	1 4 3
	Total,	£64 16 0	£94 16 7½

MARSH CULTIVATION.—The marshes in the District yield reeds in large quantities, which are used for building and as firewood.

Long-stemmed rice is grown very extensively in water ten or twelve feet deep; but the Collector states that he is not aware of any improvement having been made, by which it is now grown in a greater depth of water than formerly. The names of the principal varieties of long-stemmed rice given by the Collector are:—(1) *Baran*, (2) *lepá baran*, (3) *betá baran*, (4) *bharálotá*, (5) *punyámagi*, (6) *maskándi*.

LINE OF DRAINAGE.—The drainage of the District is generally from north-west to south-east; and the surface water rapidly finds its way to the large rivers, by means of the numerous *jhíls* or marshy lakes scattered over the country.

JUNGLE PRODUCE.—In addition to the marsh reeds already mentioned, a jungle plant called *jháu* grows in several parts of the District. It is a source of profit to the *zamíndárs* on whose land it springs up, and is extensively used as fuel. There are no uncultivated pasture-grounds in the District; nor is there any forest land or trade in jungle produce.

FERÆ NATURÆ.—The large game of the District consists of buffaloes and deer, both of which are rare; and of tigers, leopards, and wild pigs, all of which are plentiful. The wild pigs in Pábná are both numerous and of large size, and 'pig-sticking' has long been a favourite sport of the European residents and visitors.

The most common game birds found in the District are geese, duck, teal, widgeon, snipe, quail, golden plover, silver plover, grey plover, pigeons, doves, and ortolans. Teal, widgeons, and plover are particularly abundant; and the natives shoot great numbers for their own consumption as well as for sale. Eight teal can be bought by Europeans in the town of Pábná for a rupee (2s.); and natives, of course, purchase them at a still lower price.

The following is a list of the principal fish found in the District:—I. River fish—(1) *Ilis* or *hilsá*, (2) *rui*, (3) *chitál*, (4) *dháin*, (5) *boáil*, (6) *áir*, (7) *mirgá*, (8) *kátal*, (9) *pápdá*, (10) *chándá*, (11) *khar sollá*, (12) *ráek*, (13) *ichá*, (14) *chelá*, (15) *báliá*, (16) *tengrá*, (17) *kánikhlá*. II. Tank Fish—(1) *Rui*, (2) *chitál*, (3) *boáil*, (4) *gajár*, (5) *pángás*, (6) *áir*, (7) *sail*, (8) *mirgá*, (9) *kátal*, (10) *báim*, (11) *kai*, (12) *pápdá*, (13) *bhedá*, (14) *punthi*, (15) *khalíshá*, (16) *chándá*, (17) *magur*, (18) *jiyal*, (19) *ráek*, (20) *ichá*, (21) *chelá*, (22) *táki*, (23) *báliá*, (24) *tengrá*.

The average number of deaths reported to the police as having

been caused by wild beasts during the five years ending 1869 was 53 per annum; the average number during the five years ending 1874 was 28 per annum. The total amount paid for the destruction of wild beasts during the five years ending 1874 was £14, 5s. 0d. A reward of Rs. 10 or £1 is given for the destruction of each tiger, and Rs. 5 or 10s. for each leopard.

The average number of deaths reported as having occurred from snake-bite in the five years ending 1869 was 59 per annum; the average number during the five years ending 1874 was 162 per annum. The number of deaths from snake-bite reached 214 in the year 1874. Since the 13th February 1875, a reward of 4 *ánnás* (6d.) has been offered for each cobra brought to the Magistrate; but the total amount thus paid in rewards amounted in 1876 to only Rs. 22, or £2, 4s. 0d.

POPULATION.—In the published statistics of the Board of Revenue for 1868-69, the population of Pábná District, which then included the Subdivision of Kumárkhálí, is estimated at 337,679. In 1869 a rough estimate of the population was made, by ascertaining the number of houses in the villages, and then multiplying the number by three. The figure three was adopted for the average population per house, from a consideration of the results of a Census, made in 1869, of the three towns of Pábná, Sirájganj, and Kumarkhálí. This calculation gave the total District population as 650,000 souls, an estimate subsequently ascertained to be far too low. The Census of the population, taken by order of Government on the night of the 15th January 1872, showed that Pábná District then contained a population of 1,211,594 inhabitants, even after the loss of the Subdivision of Kumárkhálí.

The operations for taking the Census of 1872 were the same in Pábná as for the rest of the Rájsháhí Division. The survey lists of villages were first corrected by the police; again tested by means of schoolmasters, *zamíndárs'* servants, pound-keepers, and others, and finally by the supervisors. 'The actual enumeration,' the Magistrate reports, 'was done by the unpaid agents, of whom the great majority were village head-men or *mandals*, or *bhuyens* and *párámániks*, by which names they are known in this District. *Gumáshtás* or *náibs*, or other rent-collectors on the part of the *zamíndárs*, and (in villages where there were schools) schoolmasters and *pandits*, were also employed as enumerators. In some instances persons other than *mandals*, holding no office or position in the village, were selected for this

work, merely because the *mandals* were too old, illiterate, or absent. The approximate number of these indigenous and unpaid agents was 5508.'

The Collector states that the Census of the floating population was not quite satisfactory. Only those boats were taken into account which were moored at the principal *ghâts;* and those which may have been in mid-channel were left unenumerated.

The results of the Census of 1872 disclosed a population of 1,211,594 souls, inhabiting 198,220 houses, and 2,792 villages. The total area of the District, as entered in the Census Returns, is 1,966 square miles, or 128 square miles larger than the area returned by the Boundary Commissioner in 1875.

The table on the next page shows the distribution of the population, villages, houses, and boats in each police circle (*thánd*) and Subdivision.

POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SEX, RELIGION, AND AGE.—The total population in Pábná District consisted in 1872 of 602,514 males, and 609,080 females; total, 1,211,594. The proportion of males to the total population, is 49·73 per cent., and the average density of the population, 616 per square mile. Classified according to age, the Census gives the following results:—Hindus—under twelve years of age, males 57,946, and females 47,529; above twelve years, males 119,332, and females 136,507. Muhammadans—under twelve years of age, males 174,008, and females 145,511; above twelve years, males 249,693, and females 278,015. Christians—under twelve years of age, males 5, and females 17; above twelve years, males 57, and females 19. Other denominations not separately classified, consisting of aboriginal tribes—under twelve years of age, males 637, and females 569; above twelve years, males 836, and females 913. Population of all religions—under twelve years of age, males 232,596, females 193,626; above twelve years, males 369,918, and females 415,454. The percentage of children not exceeding twelve years of age, in the population of different religions, is as follows:—Hindus—proportion of male children 16·0 per cent., and of female children 13·2 per cent. of the total Hindu population; total proportion of children of both sexes, 29·2 per cent. of the total Hindu population. Muhammadans—proportion of male children 20·5 per cent., and of female children 17·2 per cent. of the total Muhammadan population; total proportion of

[*Sentence continued on page* 281.

Abstract of the Population, etc. of each Subdivision and Police Circle (*tháná*) in Pabna District, 1872.

Subdivision.	Thana (or Police Circle).	Area in Square Miles.	Number of Villages, *Mauzás*, or Townships.	Number of Houses.	Number of Boats.	Total Population.	Averages according to the Census Officers.				
							Persons per Square Mile.	Villages, *Mauzás*, or Townships per Square Mile.	Persons per Village, *Mauzá*, or Township.	Houses per Square Mile.	Persons per House.
Sadr or Head-quarters,	Pábná,	318	373	34,344	350	180,038	566	1·17	483	108	5·2
	Dulái,	272	397	24,487	219	153,936	566	1·46	388	90	6·3
	Mathurá,	121	214	13,981	239	94,417	780	1·77	441	116	6·8
	Chátmahar,	224	316	24,538	277	126,628	565	1·41	401	110	5·1
	Subdivisional total,	935	1300	97,350	1085	555,019	594	1·39	427	104	5·7
Sirajganj,	Sirájganj,	322	328	28,601	1303	211,043	655	1·02	643	89	7·4
	Sháhzádpur,	274	353	30,219	94	201,253	734	1·29	570	110	6·7
	Ullápárá,	214	440	26,161	164	161,855	756	2·06	368	122	6·2
	Ráiganj,	221	371	15,889	128	82,424	373	1·67	222	72	5·2
	Subdivisional total,	1031	1492	100,870	1689	656,575	637	1·45	440	98	6·5
	District total,	1966	2792	198,220	2774	1,211,594	616	1·42	434	101	6·1

Sentence continued from page 279.]
children of both sexes, 37·7 per cent. of the total Muhammadan population. Christians—proportion of male children 5·1 per cent., and of female children 17·3 per cent. of the total Christian population; total proportion of children of both sexes, 22·4 per cent. of the total Christian population. Other religious denominations—proportion of male children 21·6 per cent., and of female children 19·2 per cent. of the total 'other' population; total proportion of children of both sexes, 40·8 per cent. of the total 'other' population. Population of all religions—proportion of male children 19·2 per cent., and of female children 16·0 per cent. of the total District population; total proportion of children of both sexes, 35·2 per cent. of the total District population.

INFIRMITIES.—The number of insanes, and of persons otherwise afflicted with infirmities in Pábná District, is returned in the Census Report as follows:—Insanes, males 308, and females 86: total, 394, or ·0325 per cent. of the total population; idiots, males 35, and females 16: total, 51, or ·0042 per cent. of the total population; deaf and dumb, males 394, and females 155: total, 549, or ·0453 per cent. of the total population; blind, males 571, and females 280: total, 851, or ·0702 per cent. of the total population; lepers, males 442, and females 73: total, 515, or ·0425 per cent. of the total District population. It is a curious circumstance, that although the females number 50·27 per cent. of the total population of the District, yet out of the total number of persons afflicted with insanity, deafness, dumbness, blindness, and leprosy, only about one-fourth were women. The total number of males thus afflicted amounts to 1750, or ·2904 per cent. of the total male population; and the number of females afflicted to 610, or ·1001 per cent. of the total female population. The total number of both sexes afflicted with the above-mentioned infirmities is 2360, or ·1948 per cent. of the total District population.

The details in the District Census Compilation giving the occupations of the people have been omitted, as they do not stand the test of statistical criticism.

ETHNICAL DIVISION OF THE PEOPLE.—With the exception of the four Districts of Bográ, Rájsháhí, Noákhálí, and Chittagong, Pábná contains a larger proportion of Muhammadans than any other District within the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. The Muhammadans number 847,227, or 69·9 per cent. of

the total population. Excluding semi-Hinduized aboriginals, the Hindus and persons of Hindu origin number 283,386, or 23·4 per cent. of the inhabitants. The semi-Hinduized aboriginal tribes are returned in the District Census Compilation at 80,446, or 6·6 per cent. of the population; and the pure aboriginal tribes at 503. In addition to these, there were in the District at the time of the Census of 1872, 29 Europeans and 3 Armenians.

The District Census Compilation thus classifies the different nationalities, races, castes, etc., with the respective numbers of each. The list of Hindu castes will be reproduced on a subsequent page, but arranged on a different principle of classification, according to the rank held by each in local esteem.

Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste.	Number.
I.—NON-ASIATICS.	
Europeans—	
English,	16
Irish,	13
Total,	29
II.—ASIATICS.	
A.—Other than Natives of India and Burmah.	
Armenian,	3
B.—Natives of India and Burmah.	
1. *Aboriginal Tribes.*	
Bhumij,	124
Kol,	177
Dhángar,	200
Nat,	1
Páhárîyá,	1
Total,	503
2. *Semi-Hinduized Aboriginals.*	
Bágdí,	1,540
Báurí,	25
Cháin,	120
Bind,	1,100
Chandál,	50,126
Kheuni,	6
Mál,	4,319
Dom,	1,556
Semi-Hinduized Aboriginals —continued.	
Turi,	407
Hári,	1,401
Káorá,	579
Mihtar,	1,161
Bhuimáli,	4,139
Ghási,	44
Baheliyá,	11
Bediyá,	40
Bhuiyá,	3
Buná,	5,234
Chámár and Muchí,	5,257
Kuril,	220
Dosádh,	14
Koch,	198
Rájbansí,	2,874
Máhilí,	60
Pási,	12
Total,	80,446
3. *Hindus.*	
(i.) Superior Castes.	
Bráhman,	20,801
Rájput,	664
Ghátwál,	1,910
Total,	23,375
(ii.) Intermediate Castes.	
Káyasth,	35,359
Baidya,	1,206
Total,	36,565

Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste.	Number.
(iii.) Trading Castes.	
Khatrí,	737
Oswál,	75
Bais Baniyá,	156
Baniyá,	610
Gandhabanik,	2,315
Subarnabanik,	947
Total,	4,843
(iv.) Pastoral Castes.	
Goálá,	11,648
Gareri,	13
Total,	11,661
(v.) Castes engaged in preparing Cooked Food.	
Kándu,	144
Halwái,	1,522
Total,	1,666
(vi.) Agricultural Castes.	
Sadgop,	449
Kaibartta,	19,255
Chásá-dhopá,	1,160
Báruí,	2,681
Támbulí,	290
Agurí,	32
Dotái,	114
Kanái,	1,005
Parásur-dás,	304
Rái,	16
Hakar,	82
Máli,	2,986
Koerí,	741
Kurmí,	449
Total,	29,564
(vii.) Castes engaged in Personal Service.	
Dhobá,	1,376
Hajjám or Nápit,	10,623
Behárá,	1,916
Káhár,	376
Dhánuk,	199
Total,	14,490

Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste.	Number.
(viii.) Artisan Castes.	
Kámár (blacksmith),	6,740
Kánsárí (brazier),	118
Sonár (goldsmith),	345
Sutradhar (carpenter),	10,282
Rájmistrí (mason),	91
Chitrakar (painter),	82
Kumár (potter),	10,202
Kácháru (glass-maker),	32
Láherí (lac-worker),	5
Sánkhárí (shell-cutter),	158
Sunrí (distiller),	29,728
Telí (oilman),	9,081
Kalu (oilman),	1,523
Total,	68,387
(ix.) Weaver Castes.	
Tántí,	5,097
Jugí,	1,738
Kapálí,	5,811
Dhuniyá,	95
Total,	12,741
(x.) Labouring Castes.	
Chunári,	1,140
Mátiyál,	3,465
Korá,	564
Pátiyál,	189
Sámanta,	4
Total,	5,362
(xi.) Castes engaged in Selling Fish and Vegetables.	
Pundári,	58
Turáhá,	6
Total,	64
(xii.) Boating and Fishing Castes.	
Jaliyá,	26,948
Bete,	726
Pátuní,	3,551
Gonhrí,	68
Málá,	7,530
Manjhí,	8,960
Tior,	2,736
Total,	50,519

Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste.	Number.
(xiii.) Musician, Dancer, Beggar, and Vagabond Castes.	
Báití, ...	346
(xiv.) Persons enumerated by Nationality only.	
Hindustání, . . .	27
Uriyá, ...	7
Panjábí, ...	93
Total, .	127
(xv.) Persons of Unknown or Unspecified Castes,	14,879
Grand Total of Hindus,	274,589
4. *Persons of Hindu Origin not recognising Caste.*	
Vaishnav, ...	8,726
Persons of Hindu Origin not recognising Caste—contd.	
Sanyásí, ...	5
Native Christians, . .	66
Total, .	8,797
5. *Muhammadans.*	
Julahá, ...	7,793
Mughul, ...	2
Pathán, ...	1,526
Sayyid, ...	115
Shaikh, ...	19,894
Unspecified, . . .	817,897
Total, .	847,227
Total of Natives of India, . . .	1,211,562
Total of Asiatics, .	1,211,565
Grand Total, .	1,211,594

Aboriginal Tribes.—According to the returns of the Census for 1872, 124 Bhumijs were then found in the District, all within *tháná* Ráiganj. Under the name of Chuars, the Bhumijs, says Mr. Beverley in his Census Report, 'are well known in early administrative history for their daring exploits. They are closely allied to the Mundás, whose language they speak; and they are found in large numbers in Mánbhúm and Singbhúm. A considerable number (33,440) are also found in Orissa, and a few are scattered throughout the various Districts of Bengal.' In the *thánás* of Chátmahar, Sirájganj, and Ráiganj, a total of 177 Kols were found at the time of the Census; but the generic term of Kol does not show the tribe to which the persons so returned belonged. The Kols, like the Bhumijs, are found in the largest numbers in Chutiá Nágpur. The only other aboriginal tribe of which more than one representative was found in the District in 1872 is the Dhángar, of whom 200 were then living in the Pábná, Sháhzádpur, Sirájganj, and Ráiganj police circles. The Dhángars are said by Colonel Dalton to be merely Uráons under another name; and 'the term Dhángar,' writes Mr. Beverley, 'signifies the youth of the tribe. They speak a language

allied to Tamil, Gond, and other Dravidian tongues, and are still free from Hinduizing influences. They are industrious cultivators, and well known throughout India wherever good, honest, hard work is to be done. They are also a merry, light-hearted people, much addicted to gluttony and intoxication, and excessively fond of dancing, which is their great national amusement.'

IMMIGRATION.—Immigration into Pábná District takes place to a considerable extent from the North-Western Provinces. Tall and powerful men come thence, and engage themselves under the name of *sirdárs*. They are retained by influential *zamíndárs*, nominally for the purpose of guarding *káchháris* (offices), treasure, etc.; but they are used more frequently for the collection of rent from the *rayats*, and for other purposes requiring force or a show of force. Merchants from Márwár are also found in large numbers in the District, their chief centre being the town of Sirájganj, where they engage in trade and banking. The Collector states that 3545 up-country men of the two classes just described were living within the limits of the Sirájganj Municipality, at the time of the Census of 1872. They do not bring their families with them, and invariably return to their homes as soon as they have earned enough by service, or when their success in trade enables them to leave the District.

EMIGRATION.—The coolies going from Calcutta to work in the tea-gardens of Assam pass by Sirájganj; and it is one of the Subdivisional Officer's duties to inspect the steamers in which they are conveyed. The Collector states that 'the inhabitants of the District never join the stream of emigration which thus passes by them. Some of them, however, go northward to settle on the *chars* of the upper Jamuná, where much good land is still vacant.'

The only internal movement noticed by the Collector is a tendency to reclaim jungle and cultivate swamps in the west of the District, near the Chalan *bíl* and the Bará *bíl*. 'This part of the country,' writes the Collector, 'was formerly very populous and flourishing, as is proved by the number of tanks, temples, and brick residences which are still to be found there. About fifty years ago, the neighbourhood became unhealthy, probably owing to an alteration in the course of the rivers. It was to a great extent depopulated, and the sites of large villages fell back into jungle. It has within the last fifteen years been repeopled, Bunás or hill-men from Chutiá Nágpur being the first settlers.'

CASTES.—The following is a list of the Hindu castes in Pábná District, arranged as far as possible in the order in which they rank in local public estimation. The numbers of each caste are taken from the District Census Compilation. A more detailed description of the status and occupation of the great majority of these castes has been given in the Statistical Account of the District of Bográ (vol. viii. pp. 169–180). That District extends along the north-eastern border of Pábná; and in the general character of its population, as in many other respects, these two Districts bear a marked resemblance to each other.

(1) Bráhman; the caste highest in the social scale, constituting the hereditary priesthood; number 20,801. (2) Baidya; this caste ranks next to the Bráhmans; its members are hereditary physicians and landed proprietors; number 1206. (3) Káyasth; writers by hereditary occupation; after the semi-Hinduized Chandáls, the most numerous caste in the District; number 35,359. (4) Khatrí or Kshattriya; this, the hereditary warrior caste, is theoretically the second in the Hindu social organization, but it is doubtful whether there are any pure Kshattriyas now to be found in Bengal. At the present day, instead of forming a warrior class, they are returned in the Census as a trading caste; number 737, of whom 560 are in the police circle of Ráiganj. (5) Rájput; the members of this caste are employed as police constables, messengers, door-keepers, etc.; number 664. (6) Baisbaniyá; merely a subdivision of the Baniyá or trading caste; number 159. (7) Baniyá; number 610, of whom 559 are in the police circle of Dulái. (8) Gandhabanik; a trading caste, who deal in spices; number 2315. (9) Oswál; a subdivision of the Baniyá caste; number 75, of whom 68 are in the police circle of Ullápárá. (10) Nápit or Hajjám; the barber caste, numbering 10,623 members. (11) Halwái; confectioners; 1522 in number. (12) Kándu; confectioners; 144 in number, of whom 87 are in the police circle of Sháhzádpur. (13) Kámár; blacksmiths; 6740 in number. (14) Kumár; the potter caste; 10,202 in number. (15) Kánsárí; the brazier caste; number 118, of whom 113 are in the police circle of Ullápárá. (16) Sonár; goldsmiths; 345 in number. (17) Báruí; growers and sellers of *pán* (betel leaf); 2681. (18) Támbulí; a caste also engaged in the preparation and sale of betel leaf; number 290, of whom 106 are in the police circle of Sháhzádpur and 167 in Sirájganj. (19) Sadgop; the highest of the agricultural castes, numbering 449 members, 233 of whom are

in the police circle of Sirájganj. (20) Kaibartta; by far the largest agricultural caste in Pábná, numbering 19,255 members, scattered throughout every police circle of the District. (21) Dotái, (22) Kanái, and (23) Parásurdás; agricultural castes, numbering respectively 114, 1005, and 304. (24) Agurís; 32. (25) Rái; the smallest agricultural caste in the District; it numbers only 16 members, all in the police circle of Chátmahar. (26) Sutradhar; carpenters; 10,282 in number. (27) Chitrakár; painters; 82. (28) Subarnabanik; general dealers; 947. (29) Tántí; the highest caste of weavers, numbering 5097 members. (30) Hakar; an agricultural caste, numbering 70 members in the police circle of Sirájganj, and 12 in Ráiganj. (31) Málí; an agricultural and gardening caste; 2986 in number. (32) Chásá Dhopá; agriculturists; 1160 in number, of whom 911 are in the police circle of Pábná. (33) Sunrí; wine sellers; after the semi-Hinduized Chandáls and the Káyasths, the most numerous caste in the District; 29,728 in number. (34) Pundári, 58 in number, and (35) Turáhá, 6 in number; sellers of fish and vegetables. (36) Rájmistrís; masons; 91 in number, of whom 80 are in the police circle of Mathurá and 11 in Ráiganj. (37) Káchárú; glassmakers; 32 in number, all in the police circle of Sirájganj. (38) Láherí; workers in shell-lac, numbering 5 members in the police circle of Sirájganj. (39) Sánkhárí; shell cutters; 158 in number, of whom 152 are in the police circle of Chátmahar. (40) Kapáli; the largest weaver caste in the District, numbering 5811 members. (41) Goálá; the most important pastoral caste in the District; number 11,648. (42) Gárerí; keepers of cows and sellers of milk; 13 in number, all in the police circle of Pábná. (43) Jugí; weavers of coarse country cloth; 1738 in number. (44) Dhuniyá; cotton cleaners; 95 in number. (45) Dhobí; the washerman caste; 1376 in number. (46) Behárá; personal servants and *pálki* bearers; 1916 in number. (47) Káhár; also *pálki* bearers; 376 in number. (48) Koerí, and (49) Kurmí; agricultural castes from Behar, numbering respectively 741 and 449 members. (50) Dhánuk; a caste engaged in personal service; 199 in number. (51) Telí, and (52) Kálu; both oilmen, numbering respectively 9081 and 1523 members. (53) Chunárí; preparers of lime; 1140. (54) Mátiyál; labourers; 3465. (55) Korá, (56) Patiyál, and (57) Sámanta; all three labouring castes, numbering respectively 564, 189, and 4. (58) Jáliyá; by far the largest boating and fishing caste in the District, numbering

26,948 members. (59) Pátuní; a caste of ferrymen; 3551 in number. (60) Ghátwáls; 1910 in number, of whom 1889 live in the police circle of Sirájganj. This is not properly a caste, but a profession. The *ghátwáls* were originally the guardians of the hill passes in the western highlands of Bengal, and they claim to be Kshattriyas. As has been explained in the Statistical Account of Bográ District (vol. viii. p. 172), the large number of persons included by the Census Report under this title in Pábná District (a number larger than in any other District in Bengal) is to be attributed to the fact that the hillmen from Chutiá Nágpur, engaged on the jungle-clearings in the north-west of the District, whom their neighbours call Bunás, affect to style themselves Ghátwáls. (61) Gonhrí, (62) Málá, (63) Mánjhí, (64) Tior, (65) Bete or Bathuá; boating and fishing castes, numbering respectively 68, 7530, 8960, 2736, and 726 members.

Religious Division of the People.—From the Census of 1872 it appears that the Muhammadans in Pábná number 847,227, or 69·9 per cent. of the total population; and the Hindus 361,314, or 29·8 per cent. of the total population. Excluding Muhammadans and Hindus, the remainder of the people consists of 98 Christians and 2955 persons of 'other' religious denominations. There were 66 native Christians in the District in 1872, of whom 49 lived in *tháná* Sirájganj, and 14 in *tháná* Pábná.

The Brahma Samaj.—The first attempt to establish a Bráhma Samáj in the District was made in 1856, by some influential native gentlemen in Government service at Pábná town. They encountered very little opposition from the orthodox Hindus of the town, and the Samáj lasted so long as they remained at Pábná. As soon, however, as the original founders left the District, the other members gradually dropped off, and the meetings were discontinued. In July 1864 a second attempt was made to organize a Bráhma Samáj; and notwithstanding considerable opposition, several members were enrolled, and the society is still in existence, though it now (1876) numbers only about eight members, of whom all but one are natives of other Districts. The members assemble every Wednesday, in a building erected for the purpose, and their meetings last for about two hours. No regular subscription is paid by the members of the Samáj, but they contribute small donations when any money is required for the purposes of the society. Besides the members of the Pábná Samáj, there are a few Bráhmans in the town of Sirájganj.

THE MUHAMMADAN COMMUNITY.—The Muhammadans of Pábná are, the Collector stated in 1870, rapidly declining in position, owing for the most part to their conservative habits, which prevent them from studying English, or from progressing in any way beyond the condition of their forefathers; and partly, also, to the jealousy shown towards them by educated Hindus, who monopolize all, or nearly all, the Government appointments. The leading *rayats* or cultivators are generally Muhammadans; and they frequently rise to the position of traders, boat-owners, and holders of small estates, their savings being usually spent in building boats or purchasing land. Such of the Musalmán cultivators as are well off spend large sums in feasts. The sons of the principal *rayats* generally learn to read and write, and some few among them study the Kurán. As a general rule, the Muhammadans of Pábná will not take food from the hands of a Hindu; but it is said that those who are of inferior social rank, and are under obligations to Hindus, will take food from them privately, though they abstain from doing so in public. The Collector reported in 1873, that class rules are daily becoming more rigid, and the separation between Hindus and Muhammadans more marked. The last generation of Musalmáns were allowed to eat food touched by a Hindu, but those who now do so are looked upon as having lost caste. The Muhammadan ministers of religion, or *mullás*, are said to be less avaricious than Hindu priests; but they gladly accept any present offered them by the cultivators. In most of the villages there are houses for praying, in which a *mullá* or priest is employed on a salary of one or two rupees per month, with an additional allowance for diet. The pay of the *mullá*, and the cost of building and repairing the house of prayer, are generally met by local subscriptions; but in some villages the houses are built by individual wealthy residents. The wives of the Muhammadan peasantry do not work in the fields, but they make themselves generally useful in the performance of domestic duties.

The Musalmán religion is occasionally adopted by Hindus who have lost caste. The Collector, however, states that no proselytes properly so-called are now ever made, although the majority of the Musalmán population are probably the descendants of voluntary converts from the lower Hindu castes. Hindus and Muhammadans mix freely with one another, especially among the lower classes. 'The Musalmán has his caste, and observes

his *pujás* (Hindu religious festival), while the Hindu honours the festival of the Muharram impartially with those of Durgá or Kálí.' The Collector adds that no new sects of Muhammadans are springing up in the District; and although Wahábís are commonly believed to be numerous in Pábná, a careful police inquiry has failed to show that the common belief is correct.

A further account of the religious ceremonies practised by the Muhammadans in this part of Bengal will be found in the Statistical Account of Bográ District (vol. viii. pp. 181–185).

MARRIAGE CUSTOMS AMONG MUHAMMADANS.—The following account of the marriage customs of the Muhammadans of Pábná is condensed from a Report by the Collector, dated August 1873. Three forms of marriage prevail among the Muhammadans in this District. They are known as *saráí*, *besaráí*, and *niká* marriages. In the first, the bridegroom goes with his friends to the house of the bride's father, and is there married; but no ceremony or festivity takes place either before or after the marriage. In the *besaráí* marriage there are various amusements, beating of tom-toms, singing, and dancing, previous to the actual marriage ceremony. In both these forms of marriage, the parents arrange the alliance, and the union never takes place solely on the wish of the two parties to the contract. In *niká* marriages, on the other hand, both bridegroom and bride are generally adults, and their consent alone is considered sufficient.

Before a Muhammadan marriage can take place, it is in every case necessary that some one on the bride's behalf communicate to the bridegroom her formal consent to the union; and this communication must be made in the presence of the *kází*, a Muhammadan officer, whose functions are partly of a judicial and partly of a religious nature. The *mullá* or priest then reads the *Kalmá*, and the bridegroom drinks a *sharbat* prepared for the occasion. This concludes the ceremony, and the bridegroom is then allowed to stay a few hours with his bride. Polygamy is not common among the Muhammadan peasantry; and divorces seldom take place when the marriage has been regularly conducted, and its obligations faithfully observed. When a woman is divorced for unfaithfulness, the children, if above two years and a half old, generally remain with the father; but if below that age, they are left temporarily under the care of their mother. The practice of repudiating a wife, by once pronouncing the word *talák*, prevails among the agricultural

class. It gives the husband the privilege of taking his wife back at any time without the formal ceremony of re-marriage, such as is necessary when the word *talák* is uttered twice. When the word *talák* is uttered more than twice, the divorce is complete, and the woman cannot be taken back even after a formal ceremony. When a divorce of any except the kind first mentioned takes place, the husband is bound to maintain the woman for three months, during which she must remain chaste, although her former husband is not similarly restrained. Daughters never inherit a *rayat's* holding, if there are sons to cultivate it; but in all other respects the rules laid down in the Muhammadan Law of Inheritance are generally followed.

TOWN POPULATION.—According to the Census returns, there are only three towns in Pábná District containing a population of more than five thousand inhabitants each. These are Pábná, Sirájganj, and Belkuchí. The following table, extracted from the District Census Compilation, gives the population of each of these towns, classified according to religion, with the return of income and expenditure made by the two municipalities of Pábná and Sirájganj in 1872.

STATISTICS OF TOWNS CONTAINING MORE THAN FIVE THOUSAND INHABITANTS IN THE DISTRICT OF PABNA (1872).

	Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Christians.	Others.	Total.	Municipal Income.	Municipal Expenditure.	Rate of Taxation per head.
						£ s.	£ s.	d.
Pábná, .	7547	8,144	39	...	15,730	610 2	494 8	9¼
Sirájganj, .	8200	10,654	13	6	18,873	638 18	609 16	8
Belkuchí, .	2458	2,670	...	...	5,128	No Municipality.		...

PABNA TOWN.—As constituted under Act vii. of 1868 of the Bengal Legislative Council, the town of Pábná is situated on both

banks of the river Ichhámatí, in north latidude 24° 0′ 30″, and east longitude 89° 17′ 25″. It is bounded on the north by the river Ichhámatí, on the south by the old bed of the Padma, on the east by the village Dohárpárá, and on the west by the village Aphari. It contains an area of two square miles. The Ichhámatí flows right through the town, and then takes a turn so as to form its northern boundary. The word Pábná is, however, applied by the natives of the District only to a small area on the right bank of the Ichhámatí, the other constituent parts of the town being known as distinct hamlets. The principal *bázárs* within the area included in the Town Union are—(1) Díwánganj *bázár*, on the Hemganj road; (2) Poliánpur *bázár*, on the Rájsháhí road; (3) Rádhánagar *bázár*, on the Rádhánagar road; (4) Pábná *bázár*, beginning on the Jackson road and ending on the Kálibári road; (5) Natun *bázár*, lying parallel to and between the Sirájganj road and the Kálibári road. There are no tanks of any importance, nor is there any demand for large reservoirs of water. The natives bathe in the river Ichhámatí; and drinking water is readily obtained from the same source, from a few small tanks, and from the numerous wells that have been dug throughout the town. Besides private houses and shops in the *bázárs*, the principal brick buildings in the town are the Government Offices, the Circuit House, the Police Hospital, the Dispensary, the Government English School, and the Mánjhipárá Indigo Factory. Although there are 8144 Muhammadans living within the town area, there is only one brick-built mosque, situated to the north of the Pábná *bázár*. The principal roads in the town are all metalled; they are four in number: (1) Strand road, connecting the Dogáchhi and *tháná* roads; (2) *Tháná* road, leading from the Government Offices to the Police Station; (3) Jackson road, connecting the Strand and Sirájganj roads; (4) Kálá Chánd road, joining Strand road to Jackson road. The most important roads leading from the town to the interior of the District are—(1) Dogáchhi road, from Strand road to the village of Dogáchhi; (2) Sirájganj road, from the *tháná* road to Dhulori, a village nineteen miles from Pábná on the way to Sirájganj; (3) Rájsháhí road, from Poliánpur *bázár* to Rámpur Beauleah, the Civil Station of Rájsháhí District; (4) Bhawánipur road, from Díwánganj *bázár* to Bájitpur *ghát* on the Padma.

Pábná was constituted a Town Union on 1st April 1869, and its income is mainly derived from a house-tax. The revenue of the

town in 1870-71 was £780; and the expenditure, £766, 12s. od.; rate of municipal taxation per head of the population, 6 *ánnás* 2 *pies*, or 9¼d. In 1874-75 the revenue was £527, 8s. od.; and the expenditure, £680, 6s. od. According to the Census of 1872, Pábná town contains a total population of 15,730 persons, thus classified according to religion and sex:—Hindus—males 3852, females 3695; total 7547. Muhammadans—males 3983, females 4161; total 8144. Christians—males 16, females 23; total 39. 'Others'—none. Total males 7851, total females 7879; grand total 15,730.

SIRAJGANJ is the most populous town, as well as the most important seat of trade, in Pábná District. It is situated in north latitude 24° 26′ 58″, and east longitude 89° 47′ 5″. The municipal boundaries are as follow:—On the north, the villages of Kuripárá, Jiárpárá, Káokholá, and Sibnáthpur; on the south, the village Kándápárá; on the east, a small river issuing from the main channel of the Jamuná, and the village of Chándáb Bayrá; on the west, the villages of Phulbáriá and Diár-baidyanáth. The town contains twelve streets, known as (1) Káyápati, (2) Phariápati, (3) Máchimpur, (4) Kápuriápati, (5) Máchhuábázár, (6) Dalálpati, (7) Básuniápati, (8) Kálibári, (9) Post-Office road, (10) Kuthiálpati, (11) Málsápárá road, and (12) Dhánbándi road. Besides these town streets, the Pábná road and Chándáikoná road pass through Sirájganj, the former running in a southerly direction, and the latter taking a westerly course, and connecting the Dhánbandi river with the village of Chándáikoná. There are 47 brick buildings, but none of stone in the whole town. Of the brick buildings, 15 are situated in Káyápati, and 9 in Phariápati street. There is only one large market in Sirájganj; but the trade operations carried on are very extensive and numerous. Rich native merchants from different parts of India trade there in rice and various classes of grain and seeds; while as a mart for jute, Sirájganj occupies the foremost position in Eastern Bengal. There are four *ghát*s or landing-places for boats in the town of Sirájganj. These are—(1) Ferry *ghát* on the Dhánbandi river, at the point were the ferry-boats ply during the rainy season; (2) Kálibári *ghát*; (3) Rahuábári *ghát*; (4) The Jute Company's *ghát* in Máchimpur. During the rains, these four *ghát*s or landing-places are of great importance, as boats and steamers can then enter the Dhánbandi river, which flows through the town. In the dry season, however, Káli-bandar

is the principal centre both for importation and exportation. The site of this landing-place is not stationary, but is moved every year, according to changes in the course of the river Jamuná. In the present year (1876), Káli-bandar lies about five miles from the town of Sirájganj.

On the 1st April 1869, Sirájganj was constituted a Town Union under Act vi. B.C. of 1868. The revenue of the town in 1870-71 was £603, 5s. 0¾d.; and the expenditure, £775, 15s. 11d.; rate of municipal taxation per head of the population, 5 *ánnás* 4 *pies*, or 8d. In 1874-75 the revenue was £634, 4s. 0d., and the expenditure £571, 16s. 0d. According to the Census of 1872, Sirájganj contains a total population of 18,873 persons, thus classified according to religion and sex:—Hindus—males 5098, females 3102; total 8209. Muhammadans—males 5216, females 5438; total 10,654. Christians—males 13, females none; total 13. 'Others'—males 6, females none; total 6. Total males 10,333, total females 8540; grand total 18,873.

The following description of Sirájganj is taken from an article in *The Statistical Reporter* for February 1876:—

'Sir George Campbell once referred to Sirájganj as "a town without houses," and such is the appearance which it presents to the eye of the voyager on the Bráhmaputra river. From the deck of his steamer the passenger can at once perceive that he has reached a place where trade is active. Small boats collected together in little fleets are approaching the mart from the north; larger vessels are departing from the other entrance of the natural harbour, and making for Calcutta. On the shore, crowds of coolies are busy in landing open hanks of jute, packing them into drums, and re-shipping the fibre in this form on board the flats and the other craft bound for the south. If it is the hour of the daily *bázár*, the brokers and local merchants are collected in light boats, and are busily effecting their purchases. The bright head-dresses of the Káyás or Márwáris, from the native state of Márwár, are sufficiently numerous to give to the assembly a liveliness, which is not much increased by the white dress of the Bengalí *mahájan*, or the riding costume and the *solá* (pith) hat of the European. The signs of a large and keen traffic are unmistakable. The strangeness of the sight consists in this, that the scene of so much commercial energy is laid amidst a waste of sands, where there is not a tree to afford shade, and barely a shed to give shelter. Some five miles

from the mart, two factory chimneys may be seen rising above a line of trees; and these indicate the position of the real town of Sirájganj. Between their homes and the *bázár*, all engaged in the trade have to go and come daily over this great extent of open *char*. It will be easily understood that this is no pleasant journey in the hot season, when the glare of the sun is reflected from the sand, which is blown in clouds by the strong wind then prevailing. A great number even of the poorest classes consider it necessary to keep ponies, in order to perform it with the less fatigue. Early in June comes a relief. The river rises, flooding the sands on which the *bázár* had been held. It fills up and renders navigable a small channel through the town of Sirájganj itself. For the next four months, trade is carried on with every convenience close to the doors of the merchants. In October, the *bázár* shifts again to some new spot, the nearest natural haven formed by the floods of the previous season on the bank of the Jamuná. When we add that between the desertion of one *bázár* and the formation of another, there is often an interval of weeks, during which business is almost suspended, it will be clear that Sirájganj has its disadvantages as a port.

'It will be asked how it came to pass that a place so badly adapted for the purpose came to be selected as the emporium of the trade of the Bráhmaputra and its tributaries. The explanation is to be found in the shifting and uncertain character of these rivers. When, about sixty years ago, Sirájganj was founded by Siráj Ali, the *zamíndár* whose name it still bears, it was built on the banks of the Bráhmaputra. In the year 1848 the stream changed its course, and swamped the whole town. The traders retired before its encroachments, and established themselves on its new bank; but hardly had they done so when it again retreated, leaving their houses three miles from its stream. The site of the old town was thus left high and dry again, but not a trace of it can be discovered on the desolate *char* which now fills its place. The river has washed away not only the houses and roads, but also the soil on which they rested, to the depth of several feet. Warned by such losses, the traders now prefer to live at a distance from the capricious stream, which, while it brings wealth to their doors, may at any moment destroy the fruit of their labours. They could find a much better site for a *bázár* ten miles down stream, at a place called Belkuchí, but they do not wish for any more changes. Belkuchí might any day be washed away, or the stream might desert it;

indeed, it appears that the merchants have made up their minds to stand by Sirájganj in spite of all inducements to move, as they are one by one building comfortable brick houses in the place of the mat and bamboo dwellings in which they for years resided.'

BELKUCHI is bounded on the north and east by a small river issuing from the Jamuná, which is navigable only in the rainy season; on the south by the village of Noápárá, and on the west by the village of Deluá. The town has only one market; but a considerable trade in jute, cloth, rice, and other goods is carried on there. The town is of oblong shape, extending north and south, and is very densely populated. According to the Census of 1872, Belkuchí contains a total population of 5128 persons, who are almost equally divided between Hindus and Muhammadans; there are no Christians or 'others.' The following is the classification given in the Census Report:—Hindus—males 1116, females 1342; total 2458. Muhammadans—males 1280, females 1390; total 2670. Total males 2396, total females 2723; grand total 5128.

LARGE VILLAGES.—The following twenty-four villages contained, according to the Census of 1872, a population of more than two thousand and less than five thousand inhabitants each. The four following are situated within the jurisdiction of Pábná police station:—(1) Char Tárápur, population 4275; (2) Bhárárá, 2797; (3) Sáhádiyár, 2054; (4) Báhir Char, 2423. The four following are situated in Mathurá police circle:—(5) Jagannáthpur, 2056; (6) Chak Málikpur Sárásiá, 3006; (7) Ját Sákni, 2348; (8) Masundiá, 2292. The three following are in Chátmahar police circle:—(9) Gopálpur, 2409; (10) Bothar, 2283; (11) Faridpur, 2656. The five following are within Sirájganj police circle:—(12) Bherayá Khámárpárá, 3431; (13) Jhunkái Chándnagar, 2293; (14) Hápániá, 2572; (15) Sátániá Hát, 2572; (16) Máijbári, 3202. The seven following are situated within Sháhzádpur police circle:—(17) Demrá, 2351; (18) Potájiá, 3286; (19) Khukni Durgapur, 2125; (20) Gudhibárí, 2462; (21) Norniá Hát, 2577; (22) Chak Bádlá, 2382; (23) Porjaná Maháráipur, 2067. The following village is in Ullápárá police circle:—(24) Támái, 2346.

The following is a list of the *thánás* or police stations, excluding the towns of Pábná and Sirájganj, together with the latitudes and longitudes, as returned by the Surveyor-General. In the *Sadr* or Headquarters Subdivision, which occupies the southern half of the District, there are, besides (1) Pábná town, the three following

thánás:—(2) Dulái, situated in the south centre of the Subdivision, in N. lat. 23° 57′ 20″ and E. long. 89° 34′ 3″; (3) Mathurá, situated in the south, near the Jamuná river, in N. lat. 23° 56′ 50″ and E. long. 89° 44′ 40″; (4) Chátmahar, situated in the north of the Subdivision, in N. lat. 24° 13′ 40″ and E. long. 89° 20′ 20″. In the Sirájganj Subdivision, which occupies the northern half of the District, there are, besides (5) Sirájganj town, the three following *thánás*:—(6) Sháhzádpur, situated in the south centre of the Subdivision, on the Haráságar river, in N. lat. 24° 11′ 0″ and E. long. 89° 39′ 20″; (7) Ullápárá, situated in the centre of the Subdivision, on the Phúljhúr river, in N. lat. 24° 18′ 58″ and E. long. 89° 36′ 48″; (8) Ráiganj, situated in the north, on the border of Bográ District, in N. lat. 24° 30′ 50″ and E. long. 89° 4′ 21″.

Division of Population into Town and Country. — The Census Compilation thus classifies the villages and towns in the District. There are 965 villages containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 1061, from two hundred to five hundred; 537, from five hundred to one thousand; 202, from one thousand to two thousand; 19, from two thousand to three thousand; 4, from three thousand to four thousand; 1, from four thousand to five thousand; 1, from five thousand to six thousand; and two towns with upwards of fifteen thousand inhabitants each.

The Collector stated in 1870 that the people of the large towns give much less trouble than the cultivators. 'The former,' he reports, 'are for the most part steady, thrifty, honest traders, who never appear in the criminal courts, except when some *gumáshtá* has absconded with the cash box, or when professional river thieves have been mistaken for honest boatmen, and, having been entrusted with a cargo, have misappropriated and sold it. The dwellers in country parts are, on the other hand, troublesome, turbulent, and litigious. In very few instances does the relation of landlord and tenant mean more than that the former has a right to receive so much rent from the latter; while the latter struggles by every means to limit that right to the lowest point. Co-operation between the two classes for the improvement of cultivation, a kindly or even a friendly feeling between them, can scarcely be said to exist. Most of the wealthy *zamíndárs* are absentees, and the middlemen who represent them are unpopular. . . . A third class is constituted by what may be called the river population,—boatmen and fishermen. These are hardy and strong men; but the class

contains many professional *dákáits* (gang robbers) and thieves, whose depredations are effected with such skill and celerity, that detection very rarely follows the commission of an offence. As tested, then, by the anxiety which different classes give to the executive and judicial officers of the District, the *zamíndárs* and *rayats* (in their mutual relationship) stand first; the river population next; and the town populations, honourably, last.'

There is, the Collector states, no tendency on the part of the rural or river population to gather into towns. 'Every man remains in the condition of life in which he was born. The *rayat* remains a *rayat* still, and will not become a trader; the *zamíndár* may place his savings in a hole in the ground, or in a Government loan, but he will never employ them in establishing himself as a manufacturer in a town.' The Census Report divides the adult male population of the District into 205,053 agriculturists, and 164,865 non-agriculturists; but this number of non-agriculturists is much too high, and is probably to be accounted for by the fact that all people who do not derive their sole means of livelihood from the land are entered as non-agriculturists. According to the Collector's estimate in 1870, the town population comprises one-twentieth of the whole District population, the river population one-twentieth, and the rural population the remaining nine-tenths.

Village Officials.—The descendants of the old village headmen are known in this District as *mandals*, *bhuyens*, and *párámániks*. Their number varies according to the size of the village; but it is reported that there are seldom less than three or more than twelve, and that five is the common number in each village. In villages inhabited by Muhammadans the headmen are generally Muhammadans. 'Their title,' the Collector reports, 'is hereditary; but if a headman dies without issue, or is incapacitated by old age or infirmity, his place is filled by election. Any old and substantial *rayat*, who possesses sufficient common sense and local knowledge, is eligible to the post; but in a village where the Muhammadan population prevails, the nominee must be able to read the Kurán. The *zamíndár* has no voice in his election.' The principal duties of these headmen are to settle disputes, and to act as representatives of the villagers in all dealings with the *zamíndárs* or other outsiders; and they frequently succeed in amicably arranging quarrels, and preventing them from being brought into court. They also assist the *zamíndár's tahsildárs* in collecting rents. The

privileges of the headmen are—to pay rent at a rate less than other *rayats*, and to be exempted from paying any illegal cesses. From the villagers, also, they receive presents at marriages and other festivals. The *panchâyat* or village assembly is composed of the village headmen. There are no *patwáris*, in the sense of village accountants, found in the District, but the name is applied to the rent-collectors of small landed proprietors.

The Material Condition of the People.—The Collector reported in 1870 that the material condition of the people was not good, and that there was little hope of early improvement. The chief causes assigned for their low condition are—(1) the bad relations that exist between landlord and tenant, and the prevalence of illegal cesses; (2) the expenditure of large sums by the poor, as well as the rich, on weddings and the accompanying festivities; (3) the total absence of capital in the hands of the agricultural community, which necessitates the existence of *mahájans*, or lenders of money and grain,—a class whom it is customary to revile, but without whom the agricultural operations of the District would come to a stand-still; (4) the total ignorance and absence of education among the agricultural classes, who are thus placed at the mercy of *zamíndárí* servants and others, whose interest it is that the *rayats* should remain in their present state.

Dress.—The Assistant-Magistrate stated in 1870 that the ordinary dress of a well-to-do shopkeeper consists of a cotton *dhutí* and *kurtá*,—the former of native, the latter of English make,—and a *chádar* or shawl of the same material as the *dhutí*. These garments are worn in the ordinary fashion, the *dhutí* round the loins, the *kurtá* as a waistcoat, and the *chádar* round the neck, hanging low on each side: the whole dress costs from three to four rupees (6s. to 8s.). The ordinary *rayat* wears only a *dhutí*, costing about 12 *ánnás* or 1s. 6d., and a small cloth called *gámchá*, which he puts on his head when it is hot. It is kept wet to cool his body, and used for a variety of purposes like a kerchief. For occasions of ceremony he generally posseses a *chádar*, but this article does not form a part of the everyday dress of the cultivating class.

Dwellings.—Shopkeepers sometimes live in brick houses, cemented with mud or lime, and containing two rooms each. Attached to the dwelling is a mat house (*báhir mahál*) to receive visitors, a cow-shed, and a cooking shed, which is also used as an

eating room. The mat dwelling of a smaller shopkeeper usually contains a sleeping room for each married couple, and the same number of out-houses as are found attached to a brick building; sometimes, however, there is no *báhir mahál*. The walls of these buildings are composed of mats, supported by timber, and thatched with *san* grass. Mud huts, so common elsewhere, are quite unknown in Pábná; and when a mud wall was wanted for the Government distillery, there was no one able to superintend its construction or show how it was to be made. The *rayat* lives in a dwelling similar in construction to that of the shopkeeper, but smaller in size.

FURNITURE.—The furniture of a Bengalí shopkeeper is the same as that of a cultivator. Two brass *lotás*, two brass plates, three stone or earthen cups, a few mats, a wrapper (*lep* or *kánthá*) to sleep in, two *ráng* or earthen vessels for dry rice and *bhát* (boiled rice), three cooking vessels, respectively for *dál* (pulses), curry, and rice; a *jháru* or sweeper's brush, and a *huká* to smoke, are to be found in every household. The classes more comfortably off have also a *morá* or cane stool, a chair (*máchiá*), a hand punkah, a bed (*khát*), and a small looking-glass.

LIVING EXPENSES.—It is difficult to estimate, by a money standard, the household expenses of an ordinary cultivator. He grows his own rice, tobacco, and, in some cases, also the cotton for his clothes, the cloth being woven by the females of the house. He has only to buy salt, and to pay the rent of his house and land. The following approximate estimate of the monthly expenses of a cultivator's household was furnished by the Collector in 1870:—Rice, Rs. 5 or 10s.; salt, 8 *ánnás* or 1s.; oil, 8 *ánnás* or 1s.; spices, 6 *ánnás* or 9d.; fish, 8 *ánnás* or 1s.; total expenses for food, Rs. 6. 14. 0 or 13s. 9d. In addition to this amount, R. 1 or 2s. must be added for the cost of clothes, 6 *ánnás* or 9d. for tobacco, 2 *ánnás* or 3d. for rent, and 1 *ánná* or 1½d. as a contribution to the village watchman, thus bringing up the total household expenses to Rs. 8. 7. 0 or 16s. 10½d. per month.

The wages of an unskilled labourer are about Rs. 5 or 10s. per month; but this sum alone would not support a family of five persons. It is usually supplemented by some other resources, such as a garden, and the home labour of the women of the family. A well-to-do shopkeeper spends about Rs. 12 or £1, 4s. 0d. per month on his food, Rs. 2 or 4s. on his dress, and another Rs. 2 or 4s. for

miscellaneous expenses; but the country shopkeepers do not live in better style, or on better food, than the ordinary cultivator.

AGRICULTURE: RICE.—There are four distinct kinds of paddy grown in Pábná District, viz.—(1) *Aus*, (2) *áman*, (3) *jáli*, and (4) *boro*. Of these, *áus* is usually grown on high lands; and *áman*, *jáli*, and *boro* on low lands. *Aman* and *áus*, however, are sometimes grown on the same description of land. Both these crops are sown in the month of Baisákh (April-May). The *áus* or early harvest takes place in Bhádra (August-September), before the country is inundated; while the *áman* or winter rice is left to grow and ripen in the standing water, and is not reaped till the months of Agraháyan and Paush (November-January).

The names of the chief varieties of *áman* rice grown in the District are—(1) *Soná ájul*, (2) *digá*, (3) *jankarái*, (4) *kálá-digá*, (5) *bháulá-digá*, (6) *kálájirá*, (7) *jhul*, (8) *nalas*, (9) *bánsiráj*, (10) *kachuá*, (11) *rájpal*, (12) *rániá*, (13) *kákuá*. The varieties of *áus* rice are—(1) *kálagoriá*, (2) *kádnas*, (3) *muktáhár*, (4) *báliábakri*, (5) *nayáchur*.

The *boro* rice or spring crop is chiefly grown on the edges of *jhils* or marshes, and on *chars* or low-lying alluvial lands. It is sown in the month of Mágh (January-February), and reaped in Chaitra and Baisákh (March-May). The *jali* (or wet-land) rice is sown and reaped at the same time as the preceding.

The following are the names given to rice at the various stages of its growth:—At the time of sowing it is called *bunáni*; when just sprouting, *ankurit*; while the plants are small, *chárá*; when the ears appear, *thor*; when it is ripe, *pakká*; and after it has been cut, *dhán*. The operation of thrashing is called *malan*; that of separating the chaff from the grain, *jhárá*; boiling is called *siddhakará*. The operation of drying is called *sukhán*; and husking, *nishtushkará*.

THE DIFFERENT PREPARATIONS OF RICE include the following:—*Chirá* consists of paddy, boiled, fried, pressed, and husked; it is sold at the rate of 1 *ánná* per *ser*, or ¾d. per pound. *Chirá bhájá* is *chirá* fried after husking; sold at 2 *ánnás* 3 *pies* per *ser*, or 1¾d. per pound. *Khai* is paddy fried and husked; sold at 1 *ánná* 9 *pies* per *ser*, or 1¼d. per pound. *Hurum* or *muri* is rice roasted on hot sand and sifted; sold at 2 *ánnás* per *ser*, or 1½d. per pound. *Chául bhájá* is rice roasted; sold at 1 *ánná* 9 *pies* per *ser*, or 1¼d. per pound. *Chául pithá* are rice cakes; sold at 2 *ánnás* per *ser*, or 1½d. per pound. *Chául rúti* is rice bread; sold at 2 *ánnás* per *ser*, or 1½d. per

pound. *Moyá* is *khai* sweetened, pressed, and made into balls; sold at 2 *ánnás* 6 *pies* per *ser*, or 1⅞d. per pound. *Pachwái*, or cheap rice beer, is drunk by the palanquin-bearers and low castes. *Amáni*, the imperfectly fermented liquid in which boiled rice, changed daily, has been standing for two or three days, is prepared by people for their own use, but is not sold.

THE OTHER CEREALS grown in the District are—wheat and barley, both sown in Kártik and Agraháyan (October-December), and reaped in Chaitra (March-April); Indian corn, sown in Baisákh (April-May), at the same time as both the *áus* and *áman* rice crops, but reaped even before the *áus*, in Ashár (June-July); *káun* and *bhurá*, both sown in Baisákh (April-May), and reaped in Srában (July-August).

THE GREEN CROPS are—gram, peas, *kalái*, *khesárí*, *musurí*, *múg*, all sown in Kártik (October-November), and reaped in Chaitra (March-April); *arhar*, sown in Baisákh (April-May), and reaped in Phálgun (February-March); linseed, *rái*, and mustard, all three sown in Kártik (October-November), and reaped in Mágh (January-February); *til* (Sesamum) of two kinds, the one sown in Bhádra (August-September), and reaped in Paush (December-January), the other sown in Phálgun (February-March), and reaped in Jaishtha and Ashár (May-July); *chiná*, sown in Paush (December-January), and reaped in Phálgun (February-March).

THE FIBRES comprise jute and flax, both generally sown in Baisákh (April-May), and reaped in Ashár and Srában (June-August); and two kinds of hemp, one of which is sown in Kártik (October-November), and reaped in Phálgun and Chaitra (February-April); the other is sown in Baisákh (April-May), and reaped in Ashár and Srában (June-August).

THE MISCELLANEOUS CROPS are indigo, sown in Aswin and Kártik (September-November), and reaped in Jaishtha and Ashár (May-July); *pán* or betel-leaf, sown in Phálgun and Chaitra (February-April), and cut at all seasons; *haldí* or turmeric, sown in Baisákh (April-May), and reaped in Paush and Mágh (December-February); *ikshu* or sugar-cane, sown in Phálgun (February-March), and reaped in Paush and Mágh (December-February); tobacco, sown in Kártik (October-November), and reaped in Mágh and Phálgun (January-March); onions, sown in Mágh (January-February), and reaped in Jaishtha (May-June). Besides the fore-

going staple crops, the District also produces ginger, mangoes, pine-apples, the castor-oil plant, *báigun*, potatoes, cucumbers, pumpkins, wood-apples, limes, beans, coriander seed, pomegranate, plantains, jack-fruit, dates, plums, chillies, *lichis*, cocoa-nuts, *karelá*, guavas, garlic, nuts, water-melons, and tamarinds.

JUTE CULTIVATION.—The jute plant (Corchorus capsularis), known to the natives as *koshtá* and *pát*, has been cultivated in the District of Pábná from time immemorial. Hemp is only used for making fishermen's nets and tow-ropes, while jute supplies its place for all other purposes. Every house is built with mats and bamboos fastened together by jute; every cow is tethered by a jute rope. The average annual consumption of jute by a Pábná household, according to the Subdivisional Officer of Sirájganj, may be estimated at half a *maund* (41 lbs.). Until about the year 1865, no more jute was grown than was necessary to satisfy this local demand. The steady rise, however, since that date in the price of the fibre has induced the *rayats* to cultivate it for export; and when in 1870-71 the rate rose to Rs. 5. 8. 0 per *maund*, or 14s. 11½d. per hundredweight, the profits made were so large that considerable additions were at once made to the area under jute cultivation. The Collector estimates that during the year 1872, 192 square miles, or ·104 of the District area, was given up to jute. But the cultivation of the fibre could not be maintained to this extent, except at the abnormally high rates of 1871; and the subsequent fall in the price of jute led to a great reduction in the area under cultivation during 1873 and the following year.

'In Pábná,' the Collector reports, 'as in other Districts, jute grows best on land just above the flood level, where there is always moisture, but seldom any accumulation of water. Such land is of the quality known to Revenue officers as *awal*, the highest assessed.' A moist season is the best suited to the cultivation. The growth of the plant is greatly stimulated by frequent showers, but floods or very violent rains injure the stems, the portion of the plant under water becoming hardened. Jute is an exhausting crop, and pulses cannot be sown in the cold season on jute land. Jute cannot be profitably grown for two years in succession on the same land; and it is, therefore, usually sown in rotation with *til* (Sesamum) and *áman* rice. Jute land in Pábná District is too valuable to be allowed to lie fallow in order that it may recover its strength.

The following account of the mode of cultivation and the prepara-

tion of this fibre, is compiled from a Report written by the Collector in 1873. Land for the cultivation of jute is ploughed and harrowed, and the clods are broken in the same way as in preparing the ground for rice. Manure is seldom used. The seeds are sown broadcast, from the latter part of February till the first week in May. When the plants grow up, they have to be thinned and the ground weeded. Great care must also be taken in guarding against the ravages of a most destructive insect, called *bichhá*. When the plants obtain their full height, and before the fibre has hardened from over ripeness, the crop is cut down close to the ground. The usual time for cutting jute is from July to October. The next process, after the jute has been cut down and made into bundles, is to steep it in water for from seven to fifteen days. For this purpose, stagnant and not running water is almost invariably used; and during the operation, selected plants are from time to time examined by the cultivators. As soon as they have been steeped long enough, the stalks are removed from the water; they are then broken with a mallet at the top, and the wood snapped in the middle. The fibre is removed by the hand, cleaned and dried on bamboo supports. After this the jute is made up in hanks, and is then ready for the market. The cultivators in the Sirájganj Subdivision make over their jute to the *bepáris*, or dealers in the interior; and the *bepáris* sell it again to the *mahájans*, or large merchants and money-lenders. In the Headquarters Subdivision, *páikárs* take the place of the *bepáris*. The Collector, in 1873, estimated that rather more than half the population of the Sirájganj Subdivision, and about one-tenth of the population of the remainder of the District, are employed in jute cultivation. The cost of production per acre may, according to the Collector's Report, be estimated at 12 *ánnás* or 1s. 6d. for seeds; Rs. 3 or 6s. for rent; and Rs. 27 or £2, 14s. 0d. on account of labourers' wages; giving a total outlay of Rs. 30. 12. 0 or £3, 1s. 6d. per acre. The produce of an acre of land under jute cultivation varies from 12 to 36 *maunds* (8·8 to 26·5 hundredweights); the average yield is estimated at 7 *maunds* per *bighá*, or 15·4 hundredweights per acre. The average price of jute of the best quality at Sirájganj during the ten years ending 1872 was Rs. 4 per *maund*, or 10s. 10½d. per hundredweight; jute of medium quality, Rs. 3. 8. 0 per *maund*, or 9s. 6¼d. per hundredweight; and inferior jute, Rs. 3 per *maund*, or 8s. 2d. per hundredweight.

Further information as to the amount of jute imported to and

exported from the District, and as to the mode in which the traffic is conducted, is given under the heads River Traffic, and Trade and Commerce, on pages 275, 293-95, 307, 309, 316, 331, 340-46.

AREA UNDER CULTIVATION; OUT-TURN OF CROPS.—The total area assessed for the payment of land revenue in Pábná District amounted, according to the Collector's Return on the 31st March 1875, to 1318 square miles 632 acres (854,152 acres); of which area, 1147 square miles 145 acres, or 87 per cent. of the total area assessed, was under cultivation. The remaining 171 square miles 487 acres comprised 92 square miles 255 acres of grazing lands, 38 square miles 534 acres of cultivable waste, and 40 square miles 338 acres of uncultivable waste. From a consideration of the known details of a tract of land, chosen as representing fairly the physical characteristics of the whole District, the Collector reported in October 1875, that 'of the cultivable land of the District, three-fourths is under food crops, and one-fourth under jute and other staples.' Of the area devoted to the cultivation of food crops, seven-eighths is reported to be under rice cultivation, one-eighth only being reserved for other food crops. The area sown with jute in the year 1872, when the cultivation of this fibre was at its height, was reported to be 192 square miles; of which 123 square miles, or 78,720 acres, were situated within the Sirájganj Subdivision, and 69 square miles, or 44,160 acres, in the Headquarters Subdivision.

Most of the cultivated land in the District is of the class commonly known as *do-fasli*, that is, land yielding two crops in succession—*dhán* or paddy, and a cold-weather crop. The Collector reported in 1871 that the produce of a *bighá* of land, paying Rs. 1. 8. 0 as rent, may be estimated as follows:—*áman dhán*, 5 *maunds*, value Rs. 5; *áus dhán*, 4 *maunds*, value Rs. 3; cold-weather crops, 1½ *maunds*, value Rs. 4. 8. 0. The value of the total out-turn is thus Rs. 12. 8. 0 per *bighá*, or £3, 15s. 0d. per acre.

POSITION OF THE CULTIVATORS.—A cultivator's holding is regarded as a large one if its area is as much as 32 *bighás* or 10⅔ acres. A holding only half this size is looked upon as a comfortable farm, but one of 8 *bighás* or 2⅔ acres is decidedly small. Two pairs of oxen, if good, can plough about 16 *bighás* or 5⅓ acres of land; but in the Sirájganj Subdivision, on account of the small size of the cattle, they are reported not to be able to plough so much. Four oxen to a plough are generally used in the District; but one pair of strong oxen is sometimes made, though with diffi-

culty, to cultivate from 12 to 15 *bighás* (4 to 5 acres). A holding of 15 *bighás* or 5 acres would not, according to the Collector, enable a *rayat* to live so comfortably as a respectable retail shopkeeper, nor as a man on a money wage of Rs. 8 (16s.) per month. Most of the peasantry are in debt, except just after harvest-time. The Subdivisional Officer at Sirájganj reports that the extension of jute cultivation has been the means of adding considerably to the income of the *rayats;* and the losses sustained in the year 1872, when the cultivation was carried to excess, fell far short of the profit gained in the preceding years. The withdrawal of land from rice cultivation, in order that the new and more profitable staple may be grown, raises the price of rice, which is felt by all consumers who have to purchase their food; but it does not affect the cultivators, who, with few exceptions, grow enough grain for the support of themselves and their families.

With the exception of a few independent *tálukdárs* in the Sirájganj Subdivision, who pay to Government the nominal land-revenue of one or two rupees a year, there are, the Collector states, very few, if any, small proprietors who live upon, and till, their own lands, without either a *zamíndár* above them or a sub-holder or labourer of any sort under them.

The Collector estimates that about three-fourths of the *rayats* in the District have rights of occupancy; and that only one-fourth are tenants-at-will. Of those cultivators who have occupancy rights, about one-fourth are not liable to enhancement of rent, but are entitled to hold their lands permanently at a fixed rate.

Domestic Animals.—The animals used in agriculture are oxen and buffaloes. Horses, cows, sheep, goats, and pigs are reared as articles of trade or for food. In one or two parts of the District, immense herds of pigs are reared for the Calcutta market. According to a return by the Collector in 1871, a cow is worth about Rs. 12, or £1, 4s. od.; a pair of oxen, Rs. 25, or £2, 10s. od.; a pair of buffaloes, Rs. 30, or £3; a score of sheep, Rs. 20, or £2; a score of kids six months old, Rs. 25, or £2, 10s. od.; a score of pigs, Rs. 40, or £4.

Agricultural Implements.—The following are the principal implements used in Pábná District:—(1) ploughshare, *nángal phál;* (2) yoke, *joyál;* (3) harrow, *mai;* (4) plough, *nángal;* (5) hammer, *mugur;* (6) scythe, *káchi;* (7) an implement to remove weeds, *páchan* or *niráni;* (8) an instrument to stir the straw, *kándál;* (9) a bamboo

plate, for removing the chaff from the grain, *kulá;* (10) broom, *bárun* or *jhántá;* (11) spade, *koddáli.* All the above implements and four oxen are required to cultivate a plough of land, *i.e.* about 16 *bighás* or $5\frac{1}{3}$ acres. The cattle and implements together represent a capital of about Rs. 50, or £5.

RATES OF WAGES.—The rate of wages both for unskilled and skilled labourers has about doubled since the year 1840. At that date, coolies (men) received only $1\frac{1}{2}$ *ánnás* or $2\frac{1}{4}$d. per day, and women and boys only half an *ánná* or $\frac{3}{4}$d. per day each. The present rates are 3 *ánnás* or $4\frac{1}{2}$d. per day for men, and 1 *ánná* 3 *pies* or $1\frac{7}{8}$d. for women and boys. The rate for agricultural day-labourers was $1\frac{1}{2}$ *ánnás* or $2\frac{1}{4}$d. per day in 1840; it is now 2 *ánnás* 3 *pies* or $3\frac{3}{8}$d. Bricklayers formerly obtained $2\frac{1}{2}$ *ánnás* or $3\frac{3}{4}$d.; they now get 5 *ánnás* or $7\frac{1}{2}$d. Carpenters and smiths earned 3 *ánnás* or $4\frac{1}{2}$d. a day in 1840; they now receive 8 *ánnás* or 1s. a day. Unskilled labourers, when engaged by the month, earn from Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 (8s. to 10s.) at the Headquarters Station, and from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6 (10s. to 12s.) at Sirájganj; while at the latter town, for occasional work, as much as Rs. 8 or 16s. per month is not unfrequently given. The jute factory at Sirájganj offers employment to so many men, women, and children—women getting Rs. 3. 12. 0 or 7s. 6d. per month, and children Rs. 2. 8 or 5s. 0d.—that the prices at Sirájganj necessarily exceed those in the rest of the District.

PRICES.—There has been a great rise in the prices of food grains of late years, and the rates are now more than twice as high as they were in 1850. The table on the following page, furnished by the Collector, shows the average price of food grains and of sugar-cane and country spirit, in each of the years 1850, 1859-60, 1866 (the year of the Orissa famine), and 1870.

From November 1873 to October 1874, the period of the Behar famine, the average price in Pábná of common rice (husked) was Rs. 2. 14. 0 per *maund*, or 7s. $9\frac{3}{4}$d. per hundredweight. The average price in the Headquarters Subdivision during the four months of greatest scarcity (April to July 1875) was Rs. 3. 3. 9 per *maund*, or 8s. $9\frac{1}{2}$d. per hundredweight. The price during the same months of the preceding year had been about one-half the above—Rs. 1. 8. 5 per *maund*, or 4s. $1\frac{3}{4}$d. per hundredweight. The average price from April to July 1874, in the Sirájganj Subdivision, was Rs. 3. 5. 7 per *maund*, or 9s. $1\frac{1}{4}$d. per hundredweight; the

[*Sentence continued on page* 309.

PRICES OF FOOD STUFFS RETURNED FOR PABNA DISTRICT IN THE YEARS 1850, 1859–60, 1866, AND 1870.

Year.	Best Cleaned Rice.		Common Rice.		Best Paddy (unhusked rice).		Common Paddy.		Unhusked Barley.		Husked Barley.		Wheat.		Sugar-cane.		Country Spirit.
	per *maund*.	per cwt.	per *maund*	per cwt.	per *maund*.	per cwt.	per *maund*.	per cwt.	per *maund*.	per cwt.	per *maund*.	per cwt.	per *maund*.	per cwt.	per *maund*.	per cwt.	per *maund* (about 50 quarts).
	R. a. p.	*s. d.*	*R. a. p.*	*s. d.*	*R. a. p.*	*s. d.*	*R. a. p.*	*s. d.*	*R. a. p.*	*s. d.*	*R. a. p.*	*s. d.*	*R. a. p.*	*s. d.*	*R. a. p.*	*s. d.*	*R. a. p.*
1850, . . .	0 12 0	2 0½	0 10 0	1 8½	0 7 0	1 2¼	0 6 0	1 0¼	0 10 0	1 8½	0 14 0	2 4½	0 14 0	2 4½	2 8 0	6 10	5 0 0
1859–60, . .	1 5 6	3 8	1 4 0	3 5	1 0 0	2 8¾	0 14 0	2 4½	0 12 0	2 0½	1 4 0	3 4¾	1 8 0	4 1	4 0 0	10 11	10 0 0
1866 (the year of the Orissa famine), . .	4 0 0	10 11	3 14 0	10 6½	2 10 0	7 1½	2 0 0	5 5½	1 12 0	4 9	2 0 0	5 5½	3 0 0	8 2¼	5 0 0	13 7	20 0 0
1870, . . .	1 8 6	4 2	1 6 0	3 9	1 0 0	2 8¾	0 13 0	2 2½	1 12 0	4 9	2 0 0	5 5½	2 8 0	6 10	5 0 0	13 7	40 0 0

Sentence continued from page 307.]
price during the same months of the preceding year having been Rs. 1. 7. 7 per *maund*, or 4s. per hundredweight.

The price at Sirájganj of jute of best quality in 1870 was Rs. 5. 4. 0 per *maund*, or 14s. 3½d. per hundredweight; the price of jute of medium quality was Rs. 4. 12. 0 per *maund*, or 12s. 11d. per hundredweight; and of jute of inferior quality, Rs. 4 per *maund*, or 10s. 10½d. per hundredweight. The average prices of the same three descriptions of fibre, in the ten years ending 1872, were respectively Rs. 4., Rs. 3. 8. 0, and Rs. 3 per *maund*, or 10s. 10½d., 9s. 6¼d., and 8s. 2d. per hundredweight.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—The measures of weight in use in Pábná District are as follow:—4 *chhaták* = 1 *poyá*; 4 *poyá* = 1 *ser*; 40 *ser* = 1 *man* or *maund*. The *ser* in general use at the town of Pábná and in the *bázárs* is a *kachchá*, or short *ser* of 60 *tolás* weight; and consequently the usual *maund* of 82·2 pounds contains 1 *maund* 13 *sers* 5⅓ *chhatáks*, according to the weights in use at Pábná. At Sirájganj, the great mart of the District, a *ser* of 60 *tolás* is used for weighing salt, betel nuts, tobacco, and molasses; and a *ser* of 82 *tolás* for turmeric, jute, mustard, ginger, hemp, *kalái* (a pulse), and rice.

The measures of time are as follow:—60 *pal* = 1 *danda*; 7½ *danda* = 1 *prahar* (3 hours); 4 *prahar* = 1 *dibas* (day).

For measuring distance, 24 *anguli* = 1 *háth*; 2 *háth* = 1 *gaj* (yard); 80 *háth* (40 yards) = 1 *rasi*; 44 *rasi* = 1 mile; 2 miles = 1 *kros*. For measuring land, 20 *dhul* = 1 *chhaták*; 16 *chhaták* = 1 *káthá*; 20 *káthá* = 1 *bighá*. The fact that 20 square *háths* are equivalent to one *chhaták* gives the relation between the measures of length and area. In practice, however, the standard of measurement varies in different parts of the District, and forms a constant subject of dispute between landlords and their tenants.

LANDLESS DAY-LABOURERS.—The Collector states that there is a class of cultivators, known in the District as *bargáits* or *bargádárs*, who cultivate land under the *jotdárs*, the latter giving half the seed and the land free of rent. The *bargáit* provides cattle, implements, half the seed, and the labour, and in return keeps half the produce. In Sirájganj town, a class of hired day-labourers is said to be springing up; but they are employed only in factories, and do not work in the fields. In no part of the District is there any large class of persons who, not being artisans, landowners, tenure-holders, or

cultivators, are forced to earn their livelihood as hired unskilled labourers.

SPARE LAND.—There is very little spare land in Pábná. According to the latest return, which gives statistics up to the 31st March 1875, it appears that, out of the total area of the District, there are only 24,854 acres (38 square miles 534 acres) of waste land fit for cultivation. The uncultivable waste land amounts to 25,938 acres, or 40 square miles 338 acres.

LAND TENURES.—The following account of the land tenures in the District of Pábná is mainly derived from a Report by Bábu Krishna Prasád Ghose, Deputy-Collector, dated December 1873; and except where otherwise stated, the statistics relate to the tenures as they existed in that year.

The whole settled area of the District may be divided into two classes of land, (I.) that which pays revenue or rent to Government, and (II.) that which is not liable to such payments. The first class, which forms by far the larger portion of the District, may be again divided into (1) estates which Government has settled at a permanently fixed rate of revenue, and (2) estates over which Government has retained, either wholly or in part, its original proprietary rights.

THE REVENUE-PAYING, PERMANENTLY-SETTLED ESTATES (*zamíndáris* and *táluks*) held direct from Government at fixed rates, are 1100 in number. Of these, 867 are assessed for the payment of a Government Revenue of less than Rs. 100 (£10) each, while 233 are assessed above that amount. No ancient records are available to show the state of the District at the time of the Permanent Settlement, or immediately afterwards; but according to local tradition, the members of the family of the Rájá of Náttor were once the sole proprietors of all the *parganás* comprised in Pábná District at the time of its formation in 1832. It is said that, prior to the British rule, Rái Rághunandan of Náttor, by ingratiating himself with the Nawáb of Murshidábád, obtained the title of Rái Rayán. During his incumbency, and that of his brother, Rájá Rámjiban, and of his son, Rájá Rámkánta, all the property of the family in this District was acquired. Rámkánta was succeeded by his widow, the celebrated Rání Bhawáni, and by his adopted son, Rájá Rám Krishna. During the incumbency of the latter, almost all the family estates fell into arrears, and were bought, at the public sales, partly by the Rájá's agents and servants, and partly by the ministerial officers of Govern-

ment, the Tagores of Calcutta, and others, who are the present proprietors of the estates.

RESUMED ESTATES.—Besides the foregoing 1100 revenue-paying permanently-settled tenures, there were in December 1873, according to the Deputy-Collector's Report, 50 resumed *mahâls*, paying, or liable to pay, revenue to Government, but not permanently settled with the holders. Of the fifty resumed estates, three were originally held as estates exempted from the payment of Government revenue; but the grants conferring the right to hold these lands free from revenue having been found invalid, the estates have been resumed by Government. The remaining forty-seven resumed *mahâls* represent alluvial accretions, formed after the Permanent Settlement of the estates to which they became attached. They were resumed by Government under Regulation ii. of 1819 and Act ix. of 1847. Of the resumed *mahâls*, 21 are settled on temporary leases with the *mâliks* or proprietors, and 10 with other individuals on the recusancy of the proprietors; 7 are directly under the management of Government officers, and 12 are open to settlement. The right of the leaseholders is limited to the creation (as regards occupied lands) of sub-tenures intermediate between themselves and the cultivators; and in creating such sub-tenures they must not interfere with the recorded rights of the latter. They have also, during the term of their leases, an absolute right to dispose of unoccupied lands. If the leaseholder is not the proprietor, the re-settlement on the expiry of the lease is made with the proprietor, should he apply; but in his absence, preference is given to the former leaseholder over outsiders. There are in these resumed estates about 158 *jotdârs* and 3839 subordinate holders or under-tenants, of whom three-fourths hold by a right of occupancy, and can lease, sell, or otherwise transfer their tenures; the remaining one-fourth are tenants-at-will.

FISHERY TENURES.—Bearing a close resemblance to the fifty resumed *mahâls* just described, are the 14 *jalkars* or fisheries in the navigable rivers Haráságar, Phúljhúr, Baral, and Cheknái. These were resumed as the property of the State, on the principle laid down in Government Orders No. 341, dated 12th September 1859. They are let out on temporary leases, the total amount realized from them in the year 1870-71 being Rs. 648 or £64, 16s. 0d. A list of these fisheries, together with the rivers on which they are situated, will be found *ante*, p. 276. Most of the

leaseholders sublet the fisheries to the actual fishermen, on terms similar to those on which they themselves hold from Government.

GOVERNMENT ESTATES.—In December 1873 there were on the rent-roll of the District 25 *khás mahál*s, or estates over which Government retains full proprietary rights. Of these, 8 *mahál*s were *chars* or islands thrown up in the navigable rivers Padma, Jamuná, and Haráságar, and taken possession of by Government under Act ix. of 1847. The remaining 17 *mahál*s were purchased by Government at auction sales, held for the recovery of arrears of revenue. One of these estates was held *khás* by the ruling authorities, prior to the cession of the *díwáni* to the East India Company; and although, a few years ago, the estate was sold to the highest bidder, it has since been bought in by Government. This *khás mahál* and six others have been transferred to the District of Nadiyá since December 1873, so that there now remain (February 1876) only 18 *khás mahál*s in Pábná District. Of the estates purchased in default of payment of Government revenue, one was encroached upon by the river Jamuná, and three others have been partially washed away by the river Padma or Ganges. All the *khás mahál*s in Pábná yield a revenue of less than £100 a year each; and their management is entrusted to the subordinate executive establishment. None of the estates are now (1876) let out in farm. In December 1873, the Deputy-Collector reported that four of the *khás mahál*s were then held by farmers on temporary leases, with the power to create sub-tenures so long as they did not interfere with the rights of cultivators. Besides these four farms, there were in December 1873, 47 *jots* in the Government *khás mahál*s. Many of these *jots* were created in times past by farmers, and upheld by Government at the time of re-settlement. The *jotdár*s have the right to sublet during the term of their lease, provided that no recorded cultivator is in possession of land, in which case the *jotdár* is only a receiver of rents. There were also, in December 1873, about 664 subordinate holders in the *khás mahál*s, of whom about two-thirds had a right of occupancy, and their tenures were reported to be transferable; the remaining one-third were tenants-at-will.

INTERMEDIATE TENURES.—Several of the principal landowners or *zamíndár*s of the District have made over to subordinate holders all the rights which they themselves originally possessed in their estates. Some of them have been compelled to do so in order to satisfy the claims of private debtors; while others have been in-

fluenced by the trouble incurred in collecting rents from a number of small tenants. As a general rule, however, the *sadr zamíndárs* in Pábná District have retained the management of their estates, and have not given up their right to the land in return for a fixed amount of rent. Nevertheless, 267 *patnís*, or subordinate permanent tenures at fixed rates, have been created by the *zamíndárs* and *tálukdárs*. With the exception of five, all of these are situated in the Head-quarters Subdivision. Subordinate to the holders of these *patní* tenures, there are said to be 50 *dar-patnídárs*; and subordinate to these, again, 3 *se-patnídárs*. Both the *dar-patnídárs* and the *se-patnidárs* have all the rights of the superior tenants from whom they respectively hold. As a rule, *patní* tenures are granted by the *zamíndár* in consideration of a lump sum amounting to the annual revenue for five years, besides the annual rent; but in some cases a smaller premium is taken, while in others even more is required.

Besides the subordinate tenures just described, there is one *jibikái táluk* in *parganá* Bájurás Názirpur, and one *shikmi táluk* in *parganá* Sinduri, both in the Headquarters Subdivision. These are supposed to be permanent tenures at fixed rates, held from the time of the Permanent Settlement of 1793, but their precise origin and history cannot now be ascertained.

The following subordinate tenures are also enumerated by the Deputy-Collector as common in Pábná District:—(1) *Ijárás* or leases, known as *miádí*, *dar-miádí*, and *se-miádí ijárás*, the last class being very few in number. They are all of a temporary character; but the lessee can sublet during the term of his lease, provided he does not interfere with the rights of existing under-tenants. (2) *Maurusi jots*, or under-tenures held at a fixed rent in perpetuity, with a written stipulation that the heirs of the original holders shall succeed to the tenure. (3) *Káimi jots*, or under-tenures held in perpetuity at fixed rates, and differing only in name from the class last mentioned. (4) *Jots*, or under-tenures with a right of occupancy, but liable to enhancement of rent. (5) *Miádí* or *sarásarí jots*; under-tenures held for a term of years according to agreement, and subject in other respects to changes in the settlement according to the will of the *zamíndár*. (6) *Uthit-patit*, or *charchá jots*; under-tenures, the rates of which are fixed annually or from time to time by local inquiry and measurement. The holders are tenants-at-will, with the power of subletting or of cultivating by means of others. The Deputy-Collector reports, that of the total number of subordinate tenures of

the last five classes, nearly one-fourth are of the 2d and 3d classes, nearly one-half of the 4th class, and the remaining one-fourth of the 5th and 6th classes.

In addition to those enumerated above, under-tenures bearing the names of *petoá táluk*, *maurusí ijárá*, *jimbá*, and *istimrárí* and *mukarrarí jots*, are known in the District. *Petoá táluks* are few in number, and are held on terms almost exactly similar to those of *patní táluks*; *maurusí ijárás* are permanent under-tenúres held at a fixed rent; *jimbás* are very few in number in Pábná, and the right of the holder is ill-defined; his position is somewhat similar, but inferior, to that of an *ijárádár*. *Istimrárí* and *mukarrarí jots* differ only in name from *káimi jots*.

RENT-FREE HOLDINGS.—In a large number of villages in Pábná District there are lands held rent-free, although the *zamíndár* pays Government revenue for them. Their description and number in Pábná, as ascertained from the registers received from the Rájsháhí Collectorate, are:—1st, *Debottar*, or lands reserved to support the worship of Hindu deities, 883 in number. 2d, *Bráhmottar*, or lands for the maintenance of Bráhmans and priests, 2756 holdings. 3d, *Vaishnavottar*, or lands for the maintenance of Vaishnavs or followers of Vishnu, 37 holdings. 4th, *Pírán* or *pírpál*, lands for the maintenance of Muhammadan temples, 349 in number. 5th, *Lákhiráj*, or lands for the support of respectable Súdras and Musalmáns, 830 in number. 6th, *Baidyottar*, or lands for the support of Baidyas or native physicians, 7 in number. 7th. *Bhogottar*, or lands assigned to an individual without the power of alienation, 125 holdings. All these rent-free tenures, excepting those in the seventh class, are of a transferable character; and subordinate to them are under-tenures similar to those already described.

SERVICE HOLDINGS.—The *chaukidárs*, or village watchmen, are not remunerated by *chákrán* lands in Pábná District; and returns received from the *zamíndárs* do not show the existence of such tenures. The village functionary who is most frequently remunerated in this way is the barber, nearly every village having a plot of land for his support. Carpenters, sweepers, bearers, washermen, drummers, *chámárs* or cobblers, are occasionally remunerated in the same way; and the domestic servants of *zamíndárs*, their butlers, table servants, and elephant drivers, frequently have *chákrán* or service lands assigned to them. Remuneration in the same form is also given to *gumáshtás*, *ámins*, *sirdárs*, *mirdhás*, *páiks*, *barkandázs*,

and other servants employed by the landholders in the management of their estates and in the collection of rent.

CULTIVATORS' HOLDINGS.—The actual cultivators of the soil in the District of Pábná are of four classes:—(1) Those holding permanently at fixed rates; (2) those having rights of occupancy; (3) tenants-at-will; (4) *bargádárs*, or cultivators who, without any tenure in the lands they till, sow and cultivate the fields of others, receiving half the seed from the owner of the land, and paying him half the crop instead of rent. The *bargádár* supplies labour, cattle, and half the seed.

Most of the actual cultivators who are recognised as having rights of occupancy, or as holding at fixed rates, have no leases, and questions as to their status may at any time occur. The *zamíndárs* maintain that the greater part, even of the old *rayats*, are mere tenants-at-will. A custom prevails in the District not to charge for fallow lands; and the landlord considers that a field left fallow reverts to him, and that no right of occupancy can be derived from its previous cultivation. As a very large proportion of the cultivated lands are allowed to lie fallow more than once in twelve years, this contention would bar nearly all occupancy rights. Again, *rayats* frequently exchange their fields, a practice commonly known among them as *iwaz khám*. This is done by the *rayat* for the convenience of cultivation, but the *zamíndárs* urge that by this proceeding the rights of both parties in the lands exchanged are extinguished. The *rayats*, on the other hand, maintain that the lands, if left fallow, do not revert to the *zamíndárs*, but that the latter remit the rent, because the practice of allowing the land to rest is beneficial both to themselves and the *zamíndárs*; and that exchanges of lands concern only the *rayats* themselves, the proprietors receiving the rent as before the transfer. It is estimated that, excluding the cultivators of the newly-formed *chars*, more than half the *rayats* in the District have occupancy rights; and it rests on the *zamíndárs* to prove that these rights have been relinquished by the non-payment of rent when the land lies fallow, or by an exchange of lands being made by two cultivators.

REVENUE-FREE ESTATES.—There were, in December 1873, 49 estates not liable to the payment of Government revenue, of which 20 are situated in the Headquarters Subdivision and 29 in Sirájganj. These revenue-free estates or *maháls* are, for the most part, very small; 25 are less than 10 *bighás* ($3\frac{1}{3}$ acres) in area, 13

less than 50 *bighás* (16⅔ acres), and only 11 above 100 *bighás* (33⅓ acres) each. Of these last eleven, one is 357 *bighás* (119 acres) in area, and the remaining ten do not exceed 256 *bighás* (85⅓ acres) each. Most of the *maháls* situated in Sirájganj are small; and many of them are reported to be connected with the history of one Magdam Sáhib, whose cubit was the unit of measurement in *parganá* Yusufsháhí, until the *zamíndárs* introduced short measures there. There is a local tradition that Magdam Sáhib was a Muhammadan prince, who came to Bengal from the north-west, and was allowed to colonize Yusufsháhí, then an uninhabited jungle. He was afterwards accused of giving offence to the Hindus, and his head was cut off; but his friends being eager to revenge his death, the king granted a *lákhiráj* or revenue-free estate to his descendants to hush the matter up. Four sharers now hold the land, each of whom is honoured with the affix of Sáhib, while the senior sharer, Khundkár Abdul Hak, is well known as an influential *zamíndár*. The Muhammadan mosque at Sháhzádpur is endowed with considerable lands held direct from Government. In this temple it is stated that Magdam Sáhib's body was interred, and the lands are held by trustees. Most of the other revenue-free estates in the Headquarters Subdivision are held on titles said to have been conferred by the Rájás of Náttor, and a few only by some of the Muhammadan and Hindu princes. These endowments were made chiefly for the maintenance of religious and charitable institutions, and for the support of Muhammadan and Hindu priests; but no detailed information regarding their origin and previous history is available. In the course of the resumption proceedings, 38 of the present revenue-free estates in Pábná District were released without investigation, as the area in question was in each case less than 50 *bighás* or 16⅔ acres. The validity of the grants of the remaining 11 estates was satisfactorily established.

Rates of Rent.—In the District of Pábná, rice and other food grains, jute, and indigo are all grown on land of the same description, and the same rent is paid whatever crop be sown. The present tendency is to adopt a uniform rate of assessment, by raising the rent of inferior lands to the same rate as those of superior quality in the same locality. Sugar-cane, turmeric, *pán* or betel-leaf, and *san* or thatching-grass are grown on lands specially adapted to them; and special rates exist for each class of these

crops. The rent of garden land is also different from that of land used for ordinary crops; and the rate paid for alluvial or newly formed *char* land is lower than that of any other class of land, varying from 4 to 8 *ánnás* per standard *bighá*, or 1s. 6d. to 3s. per acre.

The following tabular statement, taken from a Report furnished in 1872 to the Government of Bengal by the Collector, gives the rates of rent of the different qualities of land in the District:—

RATES OF RENT IN THE DISTRICT OF PABNA (1872).

Description of Land.	Rate per Standard *Bighá*.		Rate per Acre.	
	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.
	R. a. p.	*R. a. p.*	£ *s. d.*	£ *s. d.*
High land, fit for rice, wheat, and other food grains, as well as for jute and indigo, . . .	0 10 0	0 8 0	0 3 9	0 3 0
Low land, fit for the same crops as high land, with the exception of jute, ...	1 0 0	0 12 0	0 6 0	0 4 6
Alluvial or *char* land, . . .	0 8 0	0 4 0	0 3 0	0 1 6
Land for sugar-cane, . . .	3 0 0	2 0 0	0 18 0	0 12 0
Land for turmeric, . . .	2 0 0	1 8 0	0 12 0	0 9 0
Land for thatching-grass (*san*), .	2 0 0	1 8 0	0 12 0	0 9 0
Land for *pán* or betel-leaf, . .	6 0 0	5 0 0	1 16 0	1 10 0
Garden land, ...	6 0 0	4 0 0	1 16 0	1 4 0

There has during recent years been a strong tendency in the District towards the enhancement of rents; but while some of the *zamíndárs* have succeeded in obtaining a large increase from their *rayats*, others have completely failed. The Subdivisional Officer of Sirájganj reported in 1872 that the highest rate prevailing was Rs. 2. 1. 6 per standard *bighá*, or 12s. 7d. per acre; while in the same part of the District, the *rayats* of some *zamíndárs* were paying only 8 *ánnás* 4 *pies* per *bighá*, or 3s. 1½d. per acre, for arable land of equal quality. The cause alleged for this difference is that in the former case the *zamíndár* has succeeded in his attempts to

enhance the rents of his tenants, while in the other case the tenants have been successful in resisting the demands of their landlords.

ABWABS OR CUSTOMARY CESSES are, the Collector reported in 1872, exacted by all *zamíndárs* from their *rayats*. They vary in amount from 2 *ánnás* to 12 *ánnás* for each rupee of rent paid. Many of these cesses are paid without objection, as they are looked upon by the tenants as legitimate charges, which have existed from time immemorial. The following is a list of the several cesses reported by the Collector to be levied in the District:—(1) *Dák kharchá*, a contribution towards the *zamíndárí dák* or post. (2) *Tahari*, a cess paid to the *zamíndár's* clerk who gives the receipt for rent. (3) *Nazar*, a fee paid when the *rayat* visits his landlord or his landlord's agents. (4) *Salámí*, paid when a holding is transferred from one tenant to another. (5) A marriage tax, levied principally from the lower classes on the occasion of their marriage. (6) *Háthi kharchá*, levied by those *zamíndárs* who keep elephants. (7) *Bhikshá*, a cess levied whenever a *sráddha*, marriage, or any ceremony of importance requiring a large outlay takes place. (8) *Jarimáná*, or fine; under this head may be placed the fines levied in cases decided by the *zamíndár*, arising out of social or caste disputes, as well as in cases of assault and cattle trespass, and of the more serious offences of adultery and seduction, in which the *zamíndár* levies a heavy fine on the *rayat* whom he finds guilty. Refractory and disobedient *rayats*, who refuse to give forced labour when required to do so, are also fined. (9) *Talabáná*, the wages of peons sent to collect rent, or to summon a *rayat* to appear before the *zamíndár* or his agent. (10) *Párbbani*, a yearly present made to the *zamíndár* and his agent. (11) Charge for constructing roads. (12) *Rasad kharchá*, a charge for defraying the expenses of the *zamíndár* in the course of his tour of inspection through his estates.

Besides the above, there are many minor charges levied by landlords. 'Every little shortcoming is made the ground for a penalty, and the pretext for fresh imposition.'

RENT DISPUTES, AND AGRARIAN DISTURBANCES.—Rent disputes have in past times not unfrequently occurred in Pábná District, but those of 1873 were of special importance. The following account of their origin and history is compiled from the official correspondence on the subject, and from the Bengal Administration Report for the year 1872-73.

Parganá Yusufsháhí, in which these disputes first arose, is situated in the Subdivision of Sirájganj, and was formerly the property of the Rájá of Náttor. 'On the decay of that ancient family,' writes Mr. Nolan, the Subdivisional Officer, 'parts of the *parganá* were purchased by the five principal *zamíndárs* who are now established there, and are locally known as the Tagores of Calcutta, the Bandapádhyás or Banarjís of Dacca, the Sándyáls of Salap, the Pákrásís of Shal, and the Bhádurís of Porjaná. From the first, the relations of these new-comers with their *rayats* and with one another appear to have been unfriendly; they directed much of their attention to raising their rent-rolls by decreasing the standard of measurement, and imposing illegal cesses, which afterwards tended to become a part of the rent. No *pattás* or leases were delivered or *kabuliyats* (engagements from the *rayats*) taken at each enhancement; nor did the *rayat* ever give any written consent to the conversion of voluntary *ábwábs* (cesses) into dues which could be realized according to law. Thus, in time, the total amount collected per *bighá* in Yusufsháhí came to be much larger than in neighbouring lands of other *parganás*—perhaps treble the rate of Barabázár, where the land is at least equally profitable, and which not only adjoins, but is interlaced with Yusufsháhí. At the same time, it was quite uncertain what items of the demand were legal, and what were not. The decisions of the Court, in the very few cases in which the question came before any tribunal, were contradictory. At present there are certain imposts which the *zamíndár* acknowledges to be illegal, such as marriage dues, income tax, school *kharchá*, and so forth; and there is the old rent of the Rájás, which every *rayat* is willing to pay as the landlord's legal due. But between these two points there is a large balance, as to which it is doubtful how much would be held by the Civil Court to be rent and how much illegal exactions. Where the old rent was a rupee, there would be an increase of 8 *ánnás* made fifteen years ago and regularly paid of late; 4 *ánnás* demanded seven years ago, and paid except in one bad season; and 4 *ánnás* demanded in 1870, and only paid for one year, and that by some villages against the advice of others. There would also be some illegal cesses acknowledged as such. In this case, the *zamíndár* would say that the rent was two rupees (4s.), and the *rayat* that it was one rupee (2s.); while perhaps the Court might decide that is was one rupee eight *ánnás* (3s.).

'These are the two original causes of the dispute,—a high rate of

collection as compared with other *parganás*, and an uncertainty as to how far the amount claimed was due. The third auxiliary cause is to be found in the violent and lawless character of some of the *zamíndárs*, and of the agents of others.'

Such was the state of the *parganá* Yusufsháhí when, in 1872, the *zamíndárs* demanded a further increase of rent from their tenants. Under the law in force in Bengal, rents can only be enhanced by a regular process, after notice has been duly given in the previous year. No such notices were served in Pábná; but the *zamíndárs*, or many of them, attempted to effect irregularly a large enhancement, both by a direct increase of rent and by the consolidation of the rent with the cesses. Besides this enhancement, they stipulated that the *rayats* were to pay all cesses that might be imposed by Government, and that occupancy *rayats* should be liable to ejectment if they quarrelled with their *zamíndár*, — conditions which, as the Lieutenant-Governor stated in his Administration Report for 1872-73, the *rayats* might very properly resist. The inquiries that had recently been made with respect to illegal exactions by *zamíndárs* from their *rayats*, and the apprehended extension to Pábná of the Road Cess Act, under which the rental is registered, induced the *zamíndárs* to try to persuade their tenants to give them written engagements. Some *zamíndárs* in 1872 succeeded in this, and the terms of the engagements granted were onerous to the *rayats*. These were partially registered; but before the process was complete, the *rayats* repudiated the authority of the agent who had registered them. The difficulties were augmented by those disputes as to measurement, which, all over Bengal, have afforded a fertile source of quarrel between landlord and tenant; there being no uniform standard, and the local measuring-rod varying in different fiscal divisions (*parganás*), and almost from village to village. In Pábná especially there is extreme diversity in the standards. In the estates where the shares were much subdivided, much oppression was practised, and quarrels among the sharers themselves increased the evils already existing. It is the practice for each sharer in an undivided estate to collect separately both rents and cesses; and in the estate in which the worst of the Pábná outbreaks occurred, one shareholder had sublet his share to parties who were inimical to the other shareholder,—a state of things which led to much dispute.

At first many of the *rayats* gave way; but by February and March 1873, one or two villages that had not been so submissive

had gained successes in the Civil Courts. Certain claims for enhanced rent were rejected on appeal, after having been affirmed in the *munsif's* court; a kidnapped *rayat* had been liberated, and the *zamíndár* punished. These and other successes gradually turned the scale, and there was a reaction against increased demands. In the spring, the *rayats* commenced to organize themselves for systematic resistance. In May the league spread, and by the month of June it extended over the whole of the *parganá* of Yusufsháhí. The *rayats* formed themselves into *bidrohi*, as they styled themselves, a word which may be interpreted into Unionists; and placing themselves under the guidance of an intelligent leader and a small landholder, peaceably informed the Magistrates that they had united. 'There is,' writes Mr. Nolan, the Subdivisional Officer of Sirájganj, 'a peculiarity in the Indian law, which favours, and indeed leads to, extensive union among *rayats* in rent disputes. We allow, as a legitimate cause of enhancement, the fact that a higher rate than the one in question is paid by neighbouring *rayats* of the same class for similar lands. It thus becomes the interest of every *rayat* to prevent enhancement in any land near his own, although at first sight he might seem to have nothing to do with the matter. If he lets his neighbours be rack-rented, without assisting them in the legal, or even in the physical, resistance they may have to offer, he himself will ultimately be rack-rented also. Every rise in rents is in law a good precedent, and it may be applied far and wide, each new enhancement being itself a sufficient reason for extending the area of the highly-taxed range of country.' The objects held out by the *rayats'* league were very tempting, viz. the use of a large *bighá* of measurement, with a low rent; and it was not necessary to resort to much intimidation to induce fresh villages to join. It is stated, however, that in some instances a mild form of intimidation was used, and that buffalo horns and other musical instruments were blown at night, to cause terror and to incite others to join the union. Towards the latter end of June emissaries were sent in all directions to extend the league, and the result was the formation of large bands of villagers. Bengalí mobs, as the Commissioner remarks, are easily led to believe, and to do, anything that is suggested to them; and it was no doubt the case that persons who owed a private grudge, and bad characters eager for plunder, took advantage of these assemblies to turn them to their own ends. Outrages by *bona fide* tenants were not numerous,

but a few huts were actually burnt and plundered. The stories of murder, and of other outrages, are without foundation. No one in the Subdivision of Sirájganj was seriously hurt during the disturbances; no *zamíndár's* house or principal office was attacked, and nothing of considerable value was stolen. Such isolated cases of crime as did occur were due to the criminal class taking advantage of the excitement; and the actual riots lasted only from the middle of June to the 3d July 1873.

Up to the 1st July, 269 villages had signified by petition that they had joined the Union, and from that date ten or twelve more gave in their adherence daily. On the 4th of July the following proclamation was issued by the Government of Bengal to the cultivators in Pábná District:—

'Whereas in the District of Pábná, owing to attempts of *zamíndárs* to enhance rents, and to combinations of *rayats* to resist the same, large bodies of men have assembled at several places in a riotous and tumultuous manner, and serious breaches of the peace have occurred: this is very gravely to warn all concerned, that, while on the one hand the Government will protect the people from all force and extortion, and the *zamíndárs* must assert any claims they may have by legal means only, on the other hand the Government will firmly repress all violent and illegal action on the part of the *rayats*, and will strictly bring to justice all who offend against the law, to whatever class they belong.

'The *rayats* and others who have assembled, are hereby required to disperse, and to prefer peaceably and quietly any grievances they may have. If they so come forward, they will be patiently listened to; but the officers of Government cannot listen to rioters; on the contrary, they will take severe measures against them. It is asserted by the people who have combined to resist the demands of the *zamíndárs*, that they are to be the *rayats* of Her Majesty the Queen, and of her only. These people, and all who listen to them, are warned that the Government cannot, and will not, interfere with the rights of property as secured by law; that they must pay what is legally due from them to those to whom it is legally due. It is perfectly lawful to unite in a peaceable manner to resist any excessive demands of the *zamíndárs*, but it is not lawful to unite to use violence and intimidation.'

The measures taken for the restoration and maintenance of order in the District are described as follows in the Bengal Administra-

tion Report for 1872-73 :—'The Commissioner at once sent forty extra police from neighbouring Districts, under an experienced District Superintendent of Police. Under the Lieutenant-Governor's instructions, a party of Faríḍpur police, well armed, was despatched from Goálanda with the Pábná Magistrate. A body of one hundred armed police was also got together from the reserves of other Districts, and posted under an Assistant-Superintendent at Kushtiá, to be at hand if required. The effect of these steps, and of the energetic and discreet action of the local officers, was very marked. Rioting ceased almost immediately. Many arrests were made by the Magistrate and his subordinates; and in cases in which the offenders were brought to justice, the Lieutenant-Governor at once authorized the transfer of the prisoners to jails on the other side of the Ganges. Altogether, there were 54 cases before the criminal courts in connection with these riots, and 302 persons were arrested, some of whom were concerned in several cases. The charges were principally for rioting and illegal assembly; and the prisoners were punished with varying severity, from one month to two years.'

From the first week of July 1873 disturbances ceased, and the matter became one for the Civil Courts; but the combination of the *rayats* spread, though not very rapidly, throughout the greater part of Pábná, and even into the adjoining Districts of Bográ and Rájsháhí. The Lieutenant-Governor had, at an early stage of the disturbances, expressed a wish that the unhappy differences between the *zamíndárs* and *rayats* might be settled by the parties themselves, and that the local officers should use their influence to prevent the evils of wholesale litigation. An attempt was accordingly made at the close of the year 1873 to adjust the disputes on one large estate, that of the late Dwárkánáth Tagor; but this, as well as other efforts in the same direction, met with very slight success.

'We remain, then,' the Collector reported in December 1873, 'face to face with the fact, that a large body of *rayats* are at open feud with their *zamíndárs*, and are either paying the rent they acknowledge to be due into court, or are preparing so to do. The *zamíndárs* cannot be commiserated as sufferers from the sudden stoppage of rent through no fault of their own, since they have produced the present uncertainty as to the amount of rent due from each *rayat* by their neglect of the very old and plain obligation

of law, to grant *pattás* or leases. This confusion they have aggravated by the imposition of cesses, and then by incorporating them with the rent, till it has become uncertain in each case how much is really rent and how much cess. Moreover, I am inclined to believe that in many cases measurements have been abolished, and a system substituted which changes the size of the pole, and nearly doubles the rent; and this in a manner so secret, informal, and gradual, that though the change has been made during this generation, every *zamíndár's* agent affects ignorance of the date at which it was introduced, and can produce no document in proof thereof. Finally, it appears from the judicial decisions, that some of the *zamíndárs*, and those the most influential, have resorted to the practice of preparing false measurement, papers, and accounts.'

However, in 1874, the disputes on the estates of the late Dwárkánáth Tagor were adjusted without the aid of the local officers, and good relations were restored between landlord and tenants.

The following account of the position of the rent question at the close of the year 1874-75 is taken from the Magistrate's Annual Administration Report for that year:—'The estate on which the disturbances originated is that of the Banarjís of Dacca. The *zamíndárs* rejected all overtures towards arbitration, and resorted extensively to litigation. The first class of suits brought by them were brought on *kabuliyats*—agreements characterized by the Government of Bengal as unfair and illegal documents, and as obtained by undue pressure. These were agreements to pay at an enhanced rate, and to surrender the right of occupancy. They had been registered, but in a majority of instances had not been delivered, and both in the original suits and on appeal they were set aside as invalid. More important, because affecting a wider area, were the cases brought upon the ordinary *zamíndárí* accounts. In these, the agents of the Banarjís alleged that the *rayats* had for years paid at the enhanced rate, and offered as evidence the papers showing the demands, collections, and balances. The *rayats* replied that they had never paid at the alleged rate, and that the accounts produced had been falsified in order to make it appear that they had accepted the enhancement. Here again both the lower and the appellate courts concurred in finding the *zamíndárs* in the wrong. The rent now established in the villages as to which suits have been brought is that acknowledged by the *rayats*, generally

10 *ánnás* a *bighá*, or 3s. 9d. per acre. This rate is low, and an attempt has been made to enhance it, but failed. The *rayats* on the Banarjís' estate have, therefore, been throughout successful.'

In several of the other large estates in the District, the rent question is still unsettled; and although the *rayats* refuse to pay the rents demanded, the *zamíndárs*, from want of confidence, or from feuds among co-sharers, abstain from having recourse to the civil courts. On many of the smaller estates, the Magistrate reports that the *zamíndárs* have arranged with the *rayats*. 'The terms agreed to were generally favourable to the tenants, whether they were, as usually happened, fixed by word of mouth, or by a registered deed. On the other hand, many *rayats* who, during the scarcity of 1874, said they would agree to the *zamíndárs*' terms, have since repudiated their promises.'

The disputes as to rent are still far from settled. On the 4th June 1876 a riot, resulting in the homicide of two men, took place in the Sirájganj Subdivision; the disputants being the *zamíndárí* servants of Bábu Durgá Náth Sándyál, and the cultivators, of whom they demanded rent. A special police force of two head constables and twenty constables has accordingly been quartered for six months in the disturbed villages, at a total cost of Rs. 1334, or £133, 8s., to be levied from the villagers in proportion to their means. But the Magistrate reports, that in the first place, a wholesale attempt to extort from the *rayats* the privileges conferred on them by law has failed; in the second place, peace and order have, in spite of the most serious agrarian disputes, been preserved to a degree unknown during similar troubles in former years.

MANURE, IRRIGATION, ROTATION OF CROPS.—Manure is seldom, if ever, used in Pábná District. Cultivators depend for their crops almost entirely upon the local rainfall, and artificial irrigation is rarely adopted. In some parts of the District, however, the water from a large tank or from a marsh (*bil*) is used to irrigate the adjoining lands. The low lands of the District, which are annually flooded, do not require to lie fallow in order to preserve their fertility; but the high lands are allowed to lie fallow for three out of every seven years. The Collector reports that only three rules as regards the rotation of crops are observed in Pábná District. First, land on which betel-leaf (*pán*) has been grown for three years can never again be used for that crop; secondly, sugar-cane must not be grown two years in succession on the same land; and

thirdly, turmeric must not be grown on the same land for more than two successive years.

NATURAL CALAMITIES: BLIGHTS.—The crops of the District have never been materially injured by blight, although particular crops, in small portions of the District, frequently suffer from the attacks of insects. In the year 1876, grasshoppers (*pharing*) were very destructive; and in 1870, an insect called *medá poká* is reported to have destroyed the *kaláí* and mustard crops at Sháhzádpur.

FLOODS.—The Padma, Jamuná, and Haráságar annually overflow their banks during the rainy season, and inundate the country; but the Collector reports that no inundation causing general loss has occurred within the memory of persons now living. There are no embankments in the District to restrain the rivers within narrow and definite limits; and the Collector states that none are needed. The rivers flow over the whole country as soon as they have filled their natural channels.

DROUGHTS.—The years 1866 and 1873 are the only ones within memory in which the drought was sufficiently severe to cause any approach to scarcity in the District. The failure of the crops in both these years was caused by the deficiency in the rainfall; but droughts are of such rare occurrence that no irrigation works have been constructed, and the Collector reports that none are needed.

ORISSA FAMINE OF 1866.—During 1866-67, the year of the Orissa famine, the price of common unhusked paddy in Pábná reached Rs. 2 per *maund*, or 5s. 5¼d. per hundredweight; and the price of common husked rice, Rs. 3. 14. 0 per *maund*, or 10s. 6½d. per hundredweight. No Government relief operations were, however, thought necessary, and none were undertaken. The Collector stated in 1871 that prices had not even then returned to the rates prevalent before the scarcity.

SCARCITY OF 1874.—During the year of the scarcity in Behar and Northern Bengal (1874), it was anticipated from the failure of the crops that there would be great distress in Pábná District. The rice harvests, both *áus* and *áman*, were reported to have yielded only half an average crop, while the out-turn of pulses was estimated at five-sixths of that of an ordinary year. Relief measures were organized by the local authorities under Government orders. Charitable aid, both in the shape of cooked and uncooked food, was given to those who were unable to work, advances were made to cultivators through their landlords, and relief works were

opened to give employment to the able-bodied poor. Although, as the Magistrate reported to Government, the distress prevailing in the District did not anywhere approach an actual famine, still, during three months of scarcity the condition of the people was very critical. The Subdivisional officer at Sirájganj reported in May 1874 that many of the cultivators in the two most distressed police circles were living on insufficient food, and that some of them were in an emaciated condition. Those cases in which charitable relief was given would have probably ended in starvation, had Government aid not been afforded. The recipients of relief consisted chiefly of widows with families, sick labourers, old men without children, and others who in England would find their way to the poor-house, but who in Bengal are in ordinary years supported by their neighbours. During the latter half of the month of May 1874, the average price of common husked rice in the Ráiganj police circle was Rs. 5. 5. 4 per *maund*, or 14s. 6d. per hundredweight; and at one time the price rose to Rs. 6. 10. 8 per *maund*, or 18s. 1½d. per hundredweight. Even wholesale purchases were made at Sirájganj at the rate of Rs. 4 per *maund*, or 10s. 10½d. per hundredweight; and at Ullápárá at Rs. 4. 4. 0 per *maund*, or 11s. 6½d. per hundredweight. The average price of common husked rice in the Headquarters Subdivision during May 1874 was Rs. 3. 1. 0 per *maund*, or 8s. 4d. per hundredweight; and in the Sirájganj Subdivision, Rs. 3. 9. 2 per *maund*, or 9s. 8½d. per hundredweight; the average price throughout the District in a good year during the same month being Rs. 1. 8. 6 per *maund*, or 4s. 2d. per hundredweight.

The total cost of the charitable relief given by or through Government in 1874 was Rs. 82,919. 2. 5; the amount spent on roads and relief works was Rs. 27,704. 13. 0, making a total famine outlay of Rs. 110,623. 15. 5, or £11,062, 7s. 11d. In addition to this expenditure, Rs. 75,702. 5. 9 or £7570, 4s. 8½d. in money and grain was advanced to cultivators through their landlords, from whom security was taken for the repayment of the loans.

FAMINE WARNINGS.—The famine point, the Collector reported in 1874, may be said to be reached when rice sells in January for more than Rs. 4 per *maund*, or 10s. 10½d. per hundredweight; but however high prices may rise, grain will always be procurable in Pábná District. The facilities for import by the Eastern Bengal Railway and by water are so great, that, as long as the resources

and credit of the people are not exhausted, food can always be readily obtained. The cultivators depend chiefly on the *áman* rice crop, but although its total failure would inevitably cause scarcity in the District, there could not be a famine unless the *áus* crop failed also.

By the extension of jute cultivation, a considerable amount of rice land has been withdrawn from the area devoted to food crops, thus rendering the people less dependent than formerly on the local supply. The District of Pábná, as has already been stated, is only in a small degree exposed to the danger of famine; but if it should at any time suffer from that calamity, it will undoubtedly be a great advantage that a large portion of the soil is devoted to a crop not grown for local consumption but for export. The jute might succeed when the rice failed, and the *rayat* would then have something wherewith to purchase food.

FOREIGN AND ABSENTEE PROPRIETORS.—The Collector reported in 1871, that out of a total of 2003 proprietors, six Europeans were registered on the rent-roll of the District, and paid a revenue of Rs. 18,854, or £1885, 8s. od. Most of the large proprietors are Hindus, but there are also many important Muhammadan landholders, and the largest landowner in the District is a Musalmán. The number of Muhammadan proprietors in 1871 was 147, and the land revenue paid by them was Rs. 19,863, or £1986, 6s. od. Large portions of the District are owned by non-resident landlords, of whom there are about 99. The aggregate Government revenue paid by them amounted in 1871 to Rs. 135,692, or £13,569, 4s. od.

ROADS AND OTHER MEANS OF COMMUNICATION.—There is a great want of roads in Pábná District, and it is difficult to supply the deficiency. The many rivers, *bils*, marshy and low lands, render it impossible, without very great expense, to construct permanent roads. It is, indeed, seldom that a highway can be constructed between one important place and another, without so large a break as to render it almost useless. The longest road in the District is the Rájsháhí Road, about 30 miles in length, stretching in a north-westerly direction from Pábná to the boundary of the District. The road between Pábná and Sirájganj is incomplete, extending only about 19 miles from Pábná to Dhulori on the one side, and on the other side from Sirájganj to Gámtail, a distance of about 7 miles. All the intermediate country is too low for a road; during the rains it is

flooded with water, which for many miles is as much as twenty feet in depth. This break in the Pábná and Sirájganj Road extends for a distance of about 31 miles in length. The Dogáchhí Road, from Pábná to Dogáchhí, is 6 miles in length, and is metalled for a distance of about two miles, beginning from Pábná town. The Tántihand Road branches off from the Dogáchhí Road, and extends for 10 miles to the village of Tántihand. This road was undertaken in 1869, at the instance of the *chaudharis* of Tántihand, who agreed to contribute Rs. 1000 or £100 towards its construction. The Bájitpur Road is 5 miles in length, from Pábná town to Bájitpur *ghát*, on the Padma. This road was made as a substitute for the Bhawánipur Road, which terminated about one mile farther down the Padma, and was destroyed by the high floods of the year 1871. The first important road in the Subdivision of Sirájganj was begun in 1874. It will extend from Sirájganj to Chándáikoná, a village on the boundary of the District, and about half-way between Bográ town and Sirájganj. From Chándáikoná to Bográ there is already an excellent road. The town of Pábná is well provided with metalled and other roads, a list of the principal of which has been given on page 292 of this Statistical Account. Many of them, however, are now (1876) in need of repair.

The Collector reported in 1871 that the annual cost for construction and maintenance of the District roads was about Rs. 20,500, or £2050. The amount expended in 1874-75 was Rs. 18,512. 2. 6, or £1851, 4s. 3¾d. All the roads in the District are under the local authorities; and the Collector reports that improvements will be made as soon as the funds collected under the District Road Cess Act (Act x. of 1871, Bengal Council), are available. The amount for which the landowners of the District have been approximately assessed under that Act is Rs. 25,000, or £2500.

According to a return submitted by the Collector for the year 1873-74, there are in the District 126 miles of rivers navigable throughout the year, besides 68 miles navigable during a portion of the year. The total length of the District roads was returned at 124 miles, of which 6 miles are classed as roads of the 1st class, 86 miles as of the 2d class, and 32 miles as of the 3d class.

An account of the ferries in the District has already been given on pp. 272-273. The Collector reported in 1871 that there is only one canal in the District. It is situated at Sirájganj, and was

originally a natural water-course connecting the Jamuná and Dhánbándi rivers, but it was deepened in order to save a detour of about ten miles. This canal is one mile long, 10 feet deep, and 35 feet broad.

There is at present no railway in any part of the District; but the Northern Bengal State Railway, now (1876) in course of construction, will pass through the District for a distance of about five miles. The only station in Pábná District will be at Sárá, a village close to the bank of the Ganges or Padma. It is intended that a steamer shall ply as a ferry across the river, and thus connect the new line north of the Padma, with Porádah, a station on the Eastern Bengal Railway.

MANUFACTURES: INDIGO.—Until 1860, the cultivation and manufacture of indigo were extensively carried on throughout the District of Pábná; and it was hardly possible to travel four or five miles in any direction without passing at least one indigo factory or out-work in charge of a European or native manager. Nearly all these factories are now closed. Many have fallen into complete or partial ruin, while others, although still standing, have been abandoned by their owners. The determined and persistent opposition of the cultivators and labourers of the District rendered it impossible for the majority of the planters to grow and manufacture indigo at a profit; and only about 15,000 *bighás*, or 5000 acres, are now devoted to its cultivation. The factory yielding the largest out-turn is Mánjípárá Kuthi, situated in the town of Pábná, on the left bank of the river Ichhámatí. The total annual yield of the District is estimated at an average of only 400 *maunds* of indigo. The manufacture is conducted as in other parts of Bengal. The plants are first steeped in water for some hours, and the coloured water is then drawn off into another vat, where it is beaten and turned with wooden shovels. The next process is to boil the water, and strain it through a large sheet, the result being that grains of indigo are left above the sheet, while the water, deprived of the indigo suspended in it, passes through. This operation of straining is repeated until all the indigo has been removed; the deposit on the sheet is then collected together, pressed, cut up into small blocks, and dried. The whole quantity manufactured in the District is exported to Calcutta, and any of the dye required for local use is imported. Nearly all the indigo grown in Pábná is cultivated by hired labour, and is sown on lands held by the planter himself. The practice of

growing indigo on the lands of *rayats*, who received advances from the planters, formerly prevailed largely in the District, but it has ceased almost entirely since the indigo disturbances of 1860 and the following years.

JUTE is used locally for the manufacture of gunny cloth and bags, but there is only one factory in the District. It is situated at Máchimpur, near Sirájganj, and is the property of the Sirájganj Jute Company. This factory gives employment to a large number of men, women, and children; about 358 women and 333 children being employed in preparing, spinning, and weaving jute, and sewing gunny bags. The minimum age of the children is eight years. The Magistrate reported in June 1875, that 191 of the factory children were between eight and ten years, and the remainder above ten years of age. The work of the factory is done on the relay system, the number of hands employed being twice that required to work the machinery. The machinery is in operation for twelve hours daily, Sundays excepted; and each factory hand is therefore at work for only six hours per day. The Superintendent reported in 1875, that most of the women and children employed live within four or five hundred yards from the factory, and scarcely any live as far as one mile away. All the factory work is carried on within the building, with the exception of sack-sewing, which in fair weather is generally done in the open air. The accommodation provided for the hands is as follows:—(1) Batching house, 133 feet long, 36 feet wide, and 16 feet high; average number of hands at work at one time, 80. (2) Preparing house, 127 feet, by 47 feet 4 inches, by 16 feet; average number of hands, 107. (3) Teazing house, 26 feet, by 36 feet, by 16 feet; average number of hands, 80. (4) Weaving room, 225 feet, by 118 feet 9 inches, by 16 feet; average number of hands, 490. (5) Spinning room, 127 feet, by 94 feet 8 inches, by 16 feet; average number of hands, 168. (6) Sack-sewing house, 180 feet, by 45 feet, by 16 feet; the number of sack-sewers is 520, but the majority of them work from preference outside the building, the number working within the house varying from about 150 to 200. For preparing, spinning, and weaving jute, the factory hands receive monthly wages; for sewing bags, they are paid according to the amount of work done.

PAPER is manufactured on a small scale, in some of the villages in the Sirájganj Subdivision. The paper-makers say that they formerly earned a respectable livelihood by the manufacture of

white paper; but English paper has driven the locally made article out of the market, and has compelled them to confine themselves to the manufacture of the coarser descriptions. The Collector of Pábná and the Subdivisional Officer of Sirájganj urge the use of jute as the best and cheapest fibre for paper-making; but the natives use only *meshtá* (Hibiscus cannabinus), either through ignorance of the mode by which jute can be utilized in the manufacture, or from the want of the necessary machinery. The price of *meshtá* is, the Collector reported in September 1873, Rs. 4. 8. 0 per *maund*, or 12s. 3d. per hundredweight. The cost of manufacturing ten and a half rupee's worth, or one guinea's worth, of paper in the native fashion is stated to be as follows:—1 *maund* of *meshtá*, Rs. 4. 8. 0; ½ *maund* of shell lime, 8 *ánnás;* 10 *sers* of rice, 10 *ánnás;* 2 *chhatáks* of oil, 6 *pies:* total, Rs. 5. 10. 6, or 11s. 3¾d., excluding the labour of the manufacturers. The process by which the natives manufacture paper is thus described by the Subdivisional Officer of Sirájganj:—A *maund* of *meshtá* is first steeped in water in an earthenware vessel. It is then dried in the sun, and half a *maund* of shell lime spread over it. The compound is again put into a small quantity of water, trodden under foot until it is well mixed, and then left to steep for two or three days. It is then dried, cut into stripes, and cleansed with water. Next, it is spread on a sieve of gunny cloth and strained, so as to remove all the water. The next process is to dry the paper, which is done by spreading it on the house walls, thus giving the village the appearance of being papered all over. While it is hanging in this way, 10 *sers* (20 lbs.) of rice, mixed with 35 *sers* (70 lbs.) of hot water, are spread over it to give it a colour. Finally, the paper is polished by rubbing it with a stone, and it is then ready for use. One *maund* of *meshtá*, with the other ingredients mentioned above, is sufficient for the manufacture of 20 to 25 quires of paper.

Silk.—There was formerly a silk factory at the village of Munsidpur, close to the police outpost of Arankholá; but although the building is still (1876) standing, no silk has been manufactured there during the past three years.

Weaving.—The Collector reported in 1871, that there was then a large body of weavers in the District, comprising both Hindus and Muhammadans. Some of them were prosperous, and employed a considerable number of workmen on monthly wages; while others gave advances to working weavers, on condition that they should find their own materials and manufacture a given quantity of cloth.

The finest *dhutís* or waist-cloths are made at the village of Dogáchhí, the price varying from Rs. 5 to Rs. 15 (10s. to £1, 10s. 0d.) per pair. Both *dhutís* and *chádars* (sheets used as shawls) are exported from the District. During recent years, the condition of the weavers has much declined; and many of them, as the Collector reported in 1875, have abandoned their hereditary occupation and become cultivators and boatmen.

MAT MAKING AND BASKET WORK is largely carried on in the District, reeds as well as canes and bamboos being employed. The *Naluás* work with reeds, from which they make mats called *chátáis* and *kholpás*, and also drum-shaped baskets called *dol*, used for storing grain. The *Beto-muchis* make out of canes various kinds of baskets, called *dhámá*, *jháil*, *káthá*, and *turi*. The *Bánsphors*, a wandering class of people, who say they come from Bírbhúm, encamp under trees and work in bamboos. There is reported to be a large local demand for mat and basket work, but the supply is sufficient to admit also of a small export to other Districts.

STRING, called *tántuá*, and ROPE, called *káchi*, are made by natives from the jute grown by themselves; and from hemp are made fishing nets, and the ropes used for towing boats against stream (*gun*).

SAFFLOWER.—About 40 *bighás* (13⅓ acres) of land are sown with safflower (*kusumphul*), the whole produce being consumed locally. The seed is generally sown in December, on high lands which have been previously well ploughed. The process of manufacturing the dye from the cakes of flowers, as prepared and sold by the cultivators, is very simple. The flowers are first ground and steeped in water for four or five hours; after which the water is strained and boiled, till it becomes of a deep red colour. About 25 *maunds* of safflower dye are manufactured annually in the District, the price being Rs. 40 per *maund*, or £5, 8s. 9½d. per hundredweight. The cost of cultivation is Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or £1, 10s. 0d. per acre; and the profit is estimated by the Collector at Rs. 20 per *bighá* or £6 per acre.

CONDITION OF THE MANUFACTURING CLASSES.—The manufacturing classes are, the Collector reported in 1871, better off than the lowest class of cultivators. Their wages vary from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6 (10s. to 12s.) per month, when they are in permanent employment; and for occasional work, they are paid at the rate of Rs. 8 or 16s. per month. The monthly wages of women and children are respectively Rs. 3. 12. 0 (7s. 6d.), and Rs. 2. 8. 0 (5s.). The Collector states that workmen engaged in manufactures mix

more with each other than cultivators do; and their social habits, coupled with their comparative freedom from anxiety, give them an appearance more frank and cheerful than that of the cultivators, the success of whose crop is influenced by causes utterly beyond their own control.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.—The trade of Pábná District is extremely large. As a producing and consuming area, Pábná ranks high among the Districts of Bengal; while its position renders it of still greater importance, as the centre where the produce of numerous other Districts is collected and subsequently despatched to Calcutta, and where the imports from Calcutta are, in their turn, consigned for distribution among the Districts of North-Eastern Bengal.

Most of the traffic of the District is carried on by means of permanent markets; but fairs are also held at Karangá in the month of Jaishtha, and at Goruli, Sháhzádpur, Chátmahar, and Mathiná in the month of Chaitra. The list, on the opposite page, of the principal seats of trade in the District was furnished by the Collector in 1876; but in addition to the marts mentioned therein, every large village situated on the bank of a river has its own boats, by which a considerable traffic is carried on, and almost every hamlet has a market of its own, where goods of indigenous growth are sold for local consumption.

The following are the principal articles of traffic trans-shipped in Pábná District, whether collected for despatch to Calcutta, or imported for distribution among other Districts:—Pulses, rice, paddy, jute, iron and its manufactures, betel-nuts, fuel, oil, oil-seeds, salt, spices, sugar, tobacco, cocoa-nuts, hay and straw, and bamboos. Besides the foregoing, the District also exports, from its own produce, jute, fibre manufactures (including gunnies,) pulses, rice, oil, linseed, mustard-seed, native cotton manufactures, hay and straw, leather and hides, tobacco, and indigo. For its own consumption, it imports fuel (including coal), cotton, betel-nuts, iron and its manufactures, lime and limestone, salt, spices, sugar, timber, bamboos, European cotton manufactures (including piece-goods), cocoa-nuts, tobacco, and treasure.

The principal local marts that supply the large jute exports of the District are—Sirájganj, Názirganj, Máldah, Dárihá, Berá, Ullápárá, Kendrápárá, Nákáliá, Mathurá, Ráiganj, Pángási, Káliganj, Dogáchhí, Dassiká, Sujánagar, Sháhzádpur, Sátbáriá, Faridpur,

Káimpur, Bájitpur. The jute of Ráiganj is exported down the Máthábhángá, and from returns registered at Kishanganj, it appears that 32,270 *maunds* or 1186 tons were thus exported in 1873, and 58,025 *maunds* or 2133 tons in 1874. The only large rice importing mart is Sirájganj; but rice is exported from Sirájganj, Ullápárá,

PRINCIPAL SEATS OF TRADE IN PABNA DISTRICT.

Town or Village.	Police circle within which situated.	River on which situated.	Principal Articles of Traffic.
1. Dhápárí, .	Pábná, . .	Padma, . .	Rice, jute, salt, and pulses.
2. Dásuriá, .	Do.	Near the old bed of the Padma,	Rice, jute, salt, pulses, and turmeric.
3. Pábná, . .	Do.	Ichhámatí, .	Rice, cloth, yarn, jute, pulses, salt, oil-seeds, and lime.
4. Dogáchhí, .	Do.	Padma, . .	Rice, jute, salt, lime, *sál* wood, pulses, and tobacco.
5. Bhárárá, .	Do.	Do.	Do.
6. Chátmahar,	Chátmahar, .	Baral, . . .	Rice, pulses, and cloth.
7. Nurnagar, .	Do.	Do.	Do.
8. Bhángurá, .	Do.	Do.	Do.
9. Faridpur, .	Do.	Do.	Rice, pulses, cloth, and jute.
10. Berá, . .	Mathurá, . .	Do.	Rice, jute, salt, tobacco, and cloth.
11. Nákáliá, .	Do.	Haráságar, .	Do.
12. Benipur, .	Do.	Do.	Do.
13. Mathurá, .	Do.	Do.	Rice, jute, salt, tobacco, cloth, and molasses.
14. Máldah, .	Do.	Atrái . . .	Jute and pulses.
15. Názirganj, .	Dulái, . . .	Padma, . .	Rice, jute, cloth, salt, and tobacco.
16. Sujánagar, .	Do.	Do.	Do.
17. Sátbáriá, .	Do.	Do.	Do.
18. Sántiá, . .	Do.	Ichhámatí, .	Do.
19. Sirájganj, .	Sirájganj, . .	Jamuná, . .	Jute, oil-seeds, rice, tobacco, salt, piece-goods, iron, brass-ware, coals, cocoa-nuts, and lime.
20. Bhádraghát,	Ráiganj, . .	Phúljhur, . .	Rice.
21. Ráiganj, .	Do.	Do.	Rice, fibres, and pulses.
22. Chándáikoná,	Do.	Do.	Do.
23. Dhánghará,	Do.	Do.	Do.
24. Erondah, .	Do.	Do.	Do.
25. Ghurká, .	Do.	Do.	Do.
26. Pángásí, .	Do.	Ichhámatí, .	Fibres, rice, pulses, and jute.
27. Ullápárá, .	Ullápárá, . .	Phuljhur, . .	Do.
28. Sháhzádpur,	Sháhzádpur, .	Haráságar, .	Jute, rice, and oil-seed.
29. Kaijurí, . .	Do.	Do.	Oil-seeds.

Chátmahar, Nákáliá, Berá, Káchikátá, Bhángurá. The principal marts from which gram and other pulses are exported are Sirájganj, Nákáliá, Chátmahar, Berá, Khángrá, Nischintipur, and Dhápári. Linseed is obtained for export from the marts of Pábná town, Dhápári, and Pákurá; and mustard-seed from Sirájganj and Berá. A large portion of the Sirájganj oil-seed exports are obtained from other Districts. Tobacco is imported into Sirájganj from Rangpur and Jalpáiguri, and exported from Sirájganj and Báorá. European cotton goods are imported into the markets of Sirájganj, Nákáliá, Ullápárá, Berá, Sháhzadpur, Mathurá, Pábná, Dhápári, and Dogáchhí. A large proportion of these imports are, however, distributed among the Districts of Rangpur, Bográ, Jalpáiguri, Kuch Behar, Maimansinh, and Goálpárá, which derive the whole or great part of their European cotton goods from the stocks imported by the Pábná merchants. Sirájganj is the great exporting mart for European cotton manufactures, and native cotton goods are also exported from the same town.

River Traffic by Native Boats.—Before 1875, accurate statistics were not collected; but in that year an improved system for the registration of boat traffic was organized by the Government of Bengal, and additional River Registration Stations were established. Full details of the exports and imports by river of the several Districts of Bengal are now registered, and the statistics thus obtained are published month by month in *The Statistical Reporter.*

The tables on the two following pages show (Table I.) the exports and (Table II.) the imports of the District of Pábná, conveyed by country-boats, during the six months ending February 1876.

From these tables it appears that the total exports during the six months under Class I. (articles registered by weight only) amounted to 2,257,728 *maunds*, or 83,005 tons; while the imports under this class were 2,359,196 *maunds*, or 86,735 tons, showing an excess of 101,468 *maunds*, or 3730 tons. In Class II. (articles registered by number only) the two largest items are cocoa-nuts, and bundles of hay and straw. The total import of cocoa-nuts in the six months reached 1,221,426 in number, while the export was only 421,854; leaving no less than 799,572 to be consumed in the District. On the other hand, the exports of hay and straw exceeded the imports by 255,125 bundles. In Class III. (articles registered by value

[*Sentence continued on page* 339.

STATISTICS OF THE RIVER TRAFFIC OF PABNA DISTRICT BY NATIVE BOATS FOR THE SIX MONTHS ENDING FEBRUARY 1876.—TABLE I. (EXPORTS).

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	September.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.	Total.
CLASS I.	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*
Coal and coke,	4,875	...	...	...	7	200	5,082
Cotton,	72	15	177	7	93	77	441
Cotton, twist (Native),	112	40	16	93	70	55	386
Cotton, twist (European),	58	...	28	7	3	8	104
Chemicals and medicines,	...	155	...	...	...	6	161
Indigo,	...	...	190	50	...	...	240
Betel-nuts,	6,013	1,931	2,552	2,174	2,408	251	15,329
Fuel and firewood,	561	883	669	1,657	491	1,070	5,331
Fruits, dried,	101	440	...	...	...	...	541
Fruits, fresh, and vegetables,	104	220	216	40	5	210	795
Wheat,	6,551	252	201	983	112	56	8,155
Pulses and gram,	23,800	7,658	17,474	21,775	27,354	16,928	114,989
Rice,	21,932	3,758	5,196	24,811	31,326	20,565	107,588
Paddy,	11,724	7,467	1,903	9,825	13,802	11,431	56,152
Other cereals,	...	5	59	...	205	82	351
Jute and other raw fibres,	450,476	151,283	282,795	197,469	99,415	137,592	1,319,030
Fibres, manufactures of,	231	15	30	5,365	10	15,590	21,241
Hides,	12	...	...	230	140	110	492
Horns,	152	...	...	...	...	...	152
Iron,	655	657	536	403	1,115	769	4,735
Copper and brass,	172	1,045	230	218	197	193	2,055
Other metals,	20	5	...	...	...	...	25
Lime and limestone,	673	...	...	8	200	480	1,361
Shell lac,	1	...	...	11	...	...	12
Stick lac,	...	...	...	2	...	...	2
Ghi,	93	12	306	21	56	43	531
Oil,	12,423	11,160	5,517	5,608	5,212	6,730	46,650
Linseed,	2,779	283	4,080	7,639	5,977	4,349	25,107
Til-seed,	981	1,051	1,046	292	70	1,980	5,420
Mustard-seed,	62,362	27,496	19,141	22,710	10,482	22,410	164,601
Salt,	55,816	24,194	30,087	36,359	44,726	36,044	227,226
Other saline substances,	4	20	...	20	...	30	74
Spices and condiments,	6,455	2,021	4,796	781	3,697	4,073	21,823
Sugar, refined,	8,235	728	583	911	781	742	11,980
Sugar, unrefined,	12,334	5,525	3,444	3,361	6,091	7,787	38,542
Tobacco,	15,469	7,800	5,697	4,944	5,160	4,419	43,489
Liquor,	3	...	...	...	...	...	3
Miscellaneous,	6	49	2,485	933	1,768	2,891	8,132
Total,	705,255	256,168	389,454	348,707	260,973	297,171	2,257,728
CLASS II.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.
Fowls,	140	...	...	3,000	...	...	3,140
Goats and sheep,	6	...	...	...	...	...	6
Cows and bullocks,	...	...	...	14	8	17	39
Timber,	375	526	801	113	144	386	2,345
Bamboos,	4,379	2,323	717	661	...	1,084	9,164
Cocoa-nuts,	373,438	41,266	4,750	...	2,100	300	421,854
Hay and straw (in bundles),	208	307,000	146,000	25,015	26,924	43,500	548,647
Canes,	...	14	...	...	...	...	14
Miscellaneous,	...	28	424	40	846	1,670	3,008
CLASS III.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Leather,	65	810	2,400	...	200	2,100	5,575
Woollen manufactures,	...	...	...	...	600	...	600
Cotton manufrs. (European),	96,672	39,107	100,793	76,834	68,174	46,250	427,830
Cotton manufrs. (Native),	9,371	...	...	1,800	...	7,662	18,833
Miscellaneous (Native) goods,	8,345	5,602	5,231	4,463	11,093	...	34,734
Miscellaneous (Europ.) goods,	...	167	30	...	374	...	571
Miscellaneous goods,	620	...	...	...	...	...	620
Cloth,	100,401	...	...	...	...	...	100,401
Total,	215,474	45,686	108,454	83,097	80,441	56,012	589,164

RIVER TRAFFIC FOR SIX MONTHS ENDING FEBY. 1876.—TABLE II. (IMPORTS).

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Total.
CLASS I.	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*	*maunds.*
Coal and coke,	87,429	2,225	650	600	520	1,070	92,494
Cotton,	196	354	1,009	1,363	2,650	1,501	7,073
Cotton, twist (Native),	...	...	4	...	30	...	34
Cotton, twist (European),	26	68	96	103	122	73	488
Chemicals and medicines,	...	15	...	13	5	55	88
Lac-dye,	...	...	12	...	...	120	132
Red earth,	...	...	...	...	...	5	5
Indigo-seeds,	20	235	...	...	937	...	1,192
Betel-nuts,	7,266	3,712	51,089	3,751	3,366	3,769	72,953
Fuel and firewood,	489	5,918	3,450	9,555	1,800	8,075	29,287
Fruits, dried,	...	100	8	...	15	...	123
Fruits, fresh, and vegetables,	234	33	1,698	379	1,365	453	4,162
Wheat,	2,100	662	64	180	247	140	3,393
Pulses and gram,	8,758	7,947	1,992	3,788	2,491	999	25,975
Rice,	23,498	9,536	10,744	8,853	17,280	9,220	79,131
Paddy,	35,960	30,524	13,878	9,428	31,081	31,519	152,390
Other cereals,	...	10	24	...	...	...	34
Gums and resins,	10	...	...	...	...	...	10
Jute,	260,472	176,504	248,411	246,062	234,557	166,726	1,332,732
Fibres, manufactures of,	37	...	...	80	100	35	252
Hides,	12	...	440	10	210	300	972
Horns,	...	...	...	...	100	...	100
Iron,	2,154	924	1,202	751	1,308	451	6,790
Copper and brass,	91	69	50	72	246	359	887
Other metals,	20	5	...	...	15	...	40
Lime and limestone,	3,989	500	600	1,408	3,940	2,950	13,387
Stone,	542	...	...	...	630	...	1,172
Shell lac,	...	...	5	85	...	...	90
Stick lac,	...	...	...	...	...	210	210
Ghi,	98	...	16	3	30	25	172
Oil,	7,417	6,790	2,600	4,665	6,876	6,021	34,369
Linseed,	1,243	1,167	...	...	...	186	2,596
Til-seed,	896	420	910	678	420	2,383	5,707
Mustard-seed,	49,633	16,240	24,549	11,883	10,741	21,185	134,231
Castor-oil seed,	3,625	...	25	...	...	...	3,650
Salt,	67,730	12,527	35,303	16,124	9,533	6,738	147,955
Other saline substances,	311	...	...	32	...	15	358
Spices and condiments,	14,613	13,959	5,330	3,055	4,274	5,845	47,076
Sugar, refined,	1,458	1,994	1,614	2,324	1,500	2,240	11,130
Sugar, unrefined,	17,466	11,879	3,984	9,015	26,147	19,513	88,004
Tea,	...	...	...	...	6	...	6
Tobacco,	17,411	8,851	3,018	6,482	9,402	7,264	52,428
Liquor,	1	...	14	...	...	...	15
Miscellaneous,	1,762	45	189	45	25	3,846	5,903
Total,	616,967	313,213	412,969	340,787	371,969	303,291	2,359,196
CLASS II.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.
Fowls,	265	...	...	...	...	...	265
Goats and sheep,	6	22	5	...	...	...	33
Buffaloes,	2	...	...	...	...	...	2
Cows and bullocks,	6	...	...	...	...	...	6
Timber,	3,842	5,983	13,810	3,920	3,458	3,289	34,302
Bamboos,	20,409	20,385	...	...	95	276	41,165
Cocoa-nuts,	1,125,184	95,842	400	...	...	...	1,221,426
Hay and straw (in bundles),	880	55,321	85,601	25,588	100,440	25,692	293,522
Gunny bags,	5,000	...	...	...	...	...	5,000
Canes,	...	...	3,400	...	2,200	...	5,600
Miscellaneous,	1,755	1,445	1,405	64	...	5,000	9,669
CLASS III.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs
Leather,	52	...	...	...	1,300	3,400	4,752
Silk manufactures,	...	1,250	...	...	...	...	1,250
Cotton (European) manufrs.,	14,606	24,225	118,885	61,063	140,051	249,645	608,475
Cotton (Native) manufrs.,	1,565	10,659	...	...	...	...	12,224
Cloth,	750	...	...	...	...	...	750
Miscellaneous (Native) goods,	10,979	...	2,541	18,282	7,477	26,144	65,423
Miscellaneous (Europ.) goods,	300	...	543	...	1,500	990	3,333
Miscellaneous goods,	228	...	...	...	...	...	228
Total,	28,480	36,134	121,969	79,345	150,328	280,179	696,455

Sentence continued from page 336.]
only) the exports aggregated £58,916, 8s. od., and the imports, £69,643, 10s. od. The excess of imports was thus £10,727, 2s. od., which is more than accounted for by the excess in the one item of European cotton manufactures.

It would be fallacious to infer from these totals any general conclusions with regard to the balance of the local trade of the District. In the registration of river traffic, Pábná occupies an exceptional position. First, because it contains the great mart of Sirájganj, which collects the country produce from all the Districts round, for despatch to Calcutta, and which also serves as a distributing centre for the imports proper. Secondly, because Sirájganj is also a Registration Station; and, consequently, all goods that are received there, either from the minor marts of the District, or for distribution among these same marts, must necessarily be entered twice in the returns. According to the system of registration adopted, which proceeds strictly by Districts, the term 'export' and 'import' are used in a secondary sense, referring to the marts of origin and destination, both of which may very well lie within the District, when the registration station is not on the District boundary. For example, jute despatched from the interior of Pábná to Sirájganj, to be thence re-exported to Calcutta, would be entered three times,—twice as an export from Pábná, and once as an import into the District. This double registration is unavoidable; and there are no means available for obviating the confusion which it causes, except in the case of a few of the staple articles of trade, for which *The Statistical Reporter* furnishes more detailed information.

The total trade of Pábná District by native boats in Class I. (including both exports and imports), during the six months, amounted to a total of 4,616,924 *maunds*, or 169,739 tons; a total which is only surpassed in the whole of Bengal and Behar by Calcutta, the 24 Párganás (including the suburbs of Calcutta), and Dacca. Taking the exports alone, Pábná is beaten by Calcutta, Bákarganj, Jessor, and Maimansinh; and in imports alone, by Calcutta, the 24 Parganás, Dacca, and Patná; but in the aggregate total, formed by adding exports and imports together, Pábná stands fourth, as has been already mentioned, among the Districts of Lower Bengal. Of this aggregate total, the single commodity of jute, the staple of the Sirájganj through trade, forms more than half, or more accurately, 57 per cent. The exports and imports of this staple during

the six months almost exactly balance one another; the latter showing a slight excess of 13,702 *maunds*, or just one per cent.

Jute.—The total imports of jute by river boats during the six months (including a few thousand *maunds*, which were shipped from minor marts within Pábná District to Sirájganj) amounted to 1,332,732 *maunds*, or 48,997 tons, of which Sirájganj itself received practically the whole, viz. 1,322,768 *maunds*, or 48,631 tons. The total exports (excluding the amount despatched from Sirájganj by river steamers) were 1,319,030 *maunds*, or 48,494 tons. In this total of imports, Pábná stands before any other District (excluding, of course, Calcutta), Faridpur comes next, and then Dacca. In exports of jute, Pábná is just beaten by Maimansinh, and is considerably above Rangpur; but it must be remembered that these figures merely prove that Sirájganj assists in transhipping the jute which has been grown in those two great producing Districts.

For the four months between November 1875 and February 1876, the information given in *The Statistical Reporter* enables me to show the jute trade of Pábná in greater detail. During those four months, the total imports into the District were 895,756 *maunds*, or 32,932 tons; against exports amounting to only 717,271 *maunds*, or 26,370 tons, showing a balance in favour of the District of 178,485 *maunds*, or nearly one-fifth of the imports. During the same period, however, a net total of 20,660 *maunds* of manufactured 'fibres' was exported from the District, which was presumably the make of the Sirájganj gunny mills. In the two previous months, on the other hand, the exports largely exceeded the imports. All the imports, with the exception of about 10,000 *maunds*, were received at Sirájganj; and only about 3000 *maunds* came from minor marts within the District. Of the total exports, 443,456 *maunds*, or 61 per cent., were sent by country boat from Sirájganj, which would seem to show that a considerable stock was being retained at that mart. It is true that the exports by steamer are not included in these calculations; but it is probable that they would not materially affect the inference drawn above. For January and February, however, the Eastern Bengal Railway Company have furnished returns showing the through traffic by steamer from Sirájganj to Calcutta. In those two months, the total amount of jute imported into Sirájganj was 401,143 *maunds*; the total exported by country boats, 164,454; and the total exported by steamer, 91,342; showing a balance remaining at Sirájganj of 145,347 *maunds*. The following

Districts contributed, during the period of four months, to send the imports into Sirájganj, which may be taken as equivalent to the total imports into the District:—Rangpur, 508,970 *maunds*, or 56 per cent. of the total imports; Maimansinh, 152,995, or 18 per cent.; Goálpárá in Assam, 87,037, or 10 per cent.; Kuch Behar State, 67,830, or 8 per cent.; Bográ, 60,816, or 7 per cent.; Jalpáiguri, 16,433, or 2 per cent.; Sylhet in Assam, 6470, or ·72 per cent. Pábná itself sent to Sirájganj only 3125 *maunds*, or ·35 per cent. of the total imports into that mart. But the larger part of the jute grown in Pábná District is consigned either to Goálandá and Kushtiá, to be thence sent on by rail, or direct to Calcutta. The total exports may be thus approximately analyzed:—To Calcutta direct, 482,000 *maunds*, or 67 per cent. of the total; to Goálandá, 222,000, or 31 per cent.; to Kushtiá, 15,000, or 2 per cent. Apart from these figures, which only show the quantity borne in country boats, the Eastern Bengal steamers during the two first months of 1876 carried direct to Calcutta 91,342 *maunds*, which formed more than one-fourth of the grand total exported in the same period. Setting on one side the trade of Sirájganj, the exports of jute from Pábná arrange themselves under the following marts:—Ullápárá, with 51,381 *maunds*; Berá, 29,962; Pángásí, 28,614; Ráiganj, 14,847; Dogáchhí, 13,024; Nákáliá, 10,125; Báridháká, 8995; Bájitpur, 5921; Sátbáriá, 5698; Dhápárí, 3915; Dásiká, 3870; Kendrápárá, 3466; Pábná town, 3056; Mathurá, 2551; Sujánagar, 2420; Sháhzádpur, 2320; Kaimpur, 2116; Máldah, 2024; Chándáikoná, 1870; Nizámpur, 1750; Káliáganj, 1725; Darihá, 1531; Faridpur, 1350; Názirganj, 1327; Kaijurí, 1208; Gotbáriá, 1151, Dorábáriá, 1135.

Rice.—The exports of rice from Pábná District by native boats during the six months were 107,588 *maunds*, or 3955 tons; while the imports amounted to 79,131 *maunds*, or 2909 tons. The export of paddy was 56,152 *maunds*, or 2064 tons; the import of paddy 152,390 *maunds*, or 5603 tons. Adding rice and paddy together, the balance seems to be considerably against the District. During the four months from November to January, the chief exporting marts were as follow:—Sirájganj, with 14,982 *maunds*; Ullápárá, 9345; Chátmahar, 8352; Berá, 7590; Bhángurá, 6269; Chándáikoná, 5205; Nákáliá, 5105; Faridpur, 2150; Káchíkátá, 1435; Dogáchhí, 1300. The chief importing marts were:—Sirájganj, with 21,705 *maunds*; Dogáchhí, 3645; Názirganj, 1661. The exports are scattered in different directions, but the largest

proportion is apparently sent to Goálandá; very little goes direct to Calcutta. During the two months January and February, Sirájganj received its imports from the following Districts:—Rangpur, 5402 *maunds;* Maimansinh, 4717; Bográ, 3300; Rájsháhí, 925; while minor marts in Pábná only sent 200 *maunds.*

European Cotton Goods. — The total imports of European cotton goods by native boats during the six months were valued at £60,847, 10s. 0d., while the exports amounted to £42,783; the great bulk of the imports come by steamer. The chief importing marts, according to the detailed returns for the last four months, are:—Dhápárí, £17,740; Pábná, £12,534; Bájitpur, £5561; Chándáikoná, £5500; Mathurá, £5310; Berá, £3167; Ullápárá, £1420; Pángásí, £1100; Sirájganj, £700; Sháhzádpur, £641; Nákáliá, £560; Dogáchhí, £300. The exports take place almost entirely from Sirájganj, which in the four months sent out £28,450; while Bájitpur came next with only £80. These exports were chiefly consigned to Maimansinh, Rangpur, Jalpáigurí, Bográ, and Kuch Behar. The importing marts of Dhápárí, Bájitpur, and Pábná were supplied from the railway station of Kushtiá in Nadiyá, and Chándáikoná, Mathurá, and Sirájganj from Goálandá in Faridpur.

Salt.—The imports of salt by native boats during the six months amounted to 227,226 *maunds*, or 8353 tons; the exports, to 149,955 *maunds*, or 5513 tons, thus leaving a balance for local consumption of 77,271 *maunds*, or 2840 tons, or a little more than one-third of the total importation. These figures may be compared with those shown in the Government Resolution on 'The Boat Traffic of Bengal,' dated 18th October 1875. It is there stated that during the year 1874 the District of Pábná received altogether by various river routes 572,093 *maunds* or 21,033 tons of salt, a quantity second only to that imported into Dacca. Of this total, 53 per cent. came round by the Calcutta canals, and almost all the remainder up the Mátábhángá.

Trade of Sirajganj.—The following account of the trade of Sirájganj is mainly derived from an article published in *The Statistical Reporter* for February 1876.

The principal exports from Sirájganj are jute, oil-seeds, tobacco, and gunnies. The gunnies are manufactured by the Sirájganj Jute Company (Limited) at its factory at Máchimpur; the jute, oil-seeds, and tobacco are supplied to the Sirájganj mart by the numerous small *bázárs* situated along the banks of the

Bráhmaputra (Jamuná) and Tístá, in the Districts of Pábná, Maimansinh, Bográ, Goálpárá, Kuch Behar, and Jalpáigurí. 'This country produce,' writes the author of the article above referred to, 'is bought from the *rayats* (cultivators) at the local markets, by petty dealers called *bepáris*, and is brought down by them in small boats of from 80 to 300 *maunds* (3 to 11 tons) burden. The cultivators who live near enough to the town bring in their crops themselves in village boats, thus saving the *bepáris'* profits. At Sirájganj, the produce is bought up by traders in direct communication with Calcutta. It is then transferred to large boats of 500 *maunds* or 18 tons burden and upwards, or to steamers which ply to Calcutta and Goálandá. On the return journey, these boats and steamers bring up salt, piece-goods, iron, and brass-ware, which are transhipped into small boats at Sirájganj, and sent up-stream in exchange for the jute, seeds, and tobacco. The balance of this trade is in favour of Sirájganj as against Calcutta, and it has to be adjusted by the import of a large sum in silver. The Bank of Bengal, with a local agency at Sirájganj, obtains the surplus revenue of Rangpur, Bográ, and Maimansinh, to enable it to settle these necessary payments. This is a general description of the part played by Sirájganj in the trade between Calcutta and the villages of this part of Bengal. It has, moreover, a trade with Assam, to which it sends rice; with Sylhet, from which it receives lime; and with some other Districts.'

Jute Exports by Steamers.—The most important staple of the Sirájganj trade is jute, but it is impossible to state the comparative amount imported and exported by steamer and country boats. The statistics on p. 340 show the information available as regards the jute trade by native boats. During the six months from September to December 1875, the total imports of jute into Sirájganj by country boat amounted to 1,322,768 *maunds*, or 48,631 tons, all of which was intended for re-exportation to Calcutta. The exports of jute by steamer from Sirájganj were in 1871-72, 1,241,300 *maunds*, or 45,636 tons; in 1872-73, 1,508,900 *maunds*, or 55,474 tons; in 1873-74, 1,290,483 *maunds*, or 47,444 tons; in 1874-75, 631,416 *maunds*, or 23,214 tons.

The writer of the article in *The Statistical Reporter* thus explains the falling off in the jute exports of 1874-75:—'The average exports by steamer of the three previous years had been about 13½ *lákhs* of *maunds*, or 49,632 tons; that of 1874-75 was under

6½ *lákhs* of *maunds*, or 23,897 tons; and there was a similar, and almost equal, decrease in the registered exports by country boat. The jute trade of Sirájganj shrank to half its former size. This was caused, in a small degree only, by the general slackness of business of this kind, the decrease in the export of jute from Calcutta during that year having been inconsiderable. It is clear that the jute which was formerly brought to Sirájganj for sale must have, during 1874-75, been despatched by other routes. It is believed that this diversion was caused by the adaptation of the trade to the new conditions which have prevailed since the opening of the Goálandá Railway. It is now more convenient for the traders at the smaller marts to despatch their jute to Calcutta direct, without first bringing it to Sirájganj. There are a number of such marts on the river Phúljhúr, which passes within six miles of Sirájganj, and it was noticed that during 1874-75 their business was increasing. Though so close to the great emporium, they are outside its system, and never send jute to it; and many of the more distant marts have also commenced to set up an independent trade. This movement has been at last temporarily checked by the destruction of the Goálandá spur. The small boats which frequent the minor *bázárs* can no longer lie safely at Goálandá, and it is therefore necessary to incur the additional cost of transferring their cargo to large boats at Sirájganj. Much jute is also kept away from Sirájganj by the establishment of a steam jute-press at Subankhálí, a neighbouring place on the Maimansinh bank of the Bráhmaputra. Jute is taken to the press in hanks, and there packed into bales, ready for immediate export to England.'

'The bulk of the jute brought to Sirájganj comes from Maimansinh, Rangpur, Bográ, and Goálpárá Districts, arranged in order according to the amount which they respectively send. It is brought to the Sirájganj mart made up loosely in hanks, and before being sent to Calcutta is packed in drums. This is done partly for convenience in carriage, mainly to prevent theft on the way. As these drums have to be reopened in Calcutta, where the jute is pressed into bales for export from India, this drumming represents a charge which might be avoided if there were jute screws at Sirájganj. . . . The cost of making up the hanks into drums is set down by the Jute Commissioners at from Rs. 3. 2. 0 to Rs. 4 per hundred *maunds*. Taking the cheaper rate, and estimating the jute so packed at or near Sirájganj at 25 *lákhs* of *maunds*,

or 91,912 tons, we find that Rs. 780,000 (£78,000) is annually wasted on this intermediate process, which would be saved if the hanks could be in the first instance made up into bales. There are two practical difficulties in the way of setting up such presses, both of which may be overcome. A site has to be found accessible to the jute boats at all seasons of the year, and the reputation of the new brand has to be established in the European market.'

The jute when packed into drums is sent to Calcutta either by country boat, by steamer *viâ* the Sundarbans, or by steamer to Goálandá, and thence by rail to Calcutta.

The steamers *viâ* the Sundarbans take eight or nine days; the Goálandá route occupies two; the country boats take somewhat less than thirty days. Freights by rail and by steamer are nominally the same, but the steamer uses a larger *maund* of $82\frac{2}{7}$ pounds; the railway, one of 80 pounds. Those who ship by through steamers *viâ* the Sundarbans escape the chance of loss when cargo is shifted at Goálandá from the vessels to the rail; they get delivery at Calcutta in a more convenient part of the town, and they say they are treated with more liberality when any part of the jute is damaged or missing. These advantages are weighed against the greater speed of the railway. In 1873-74, the steamers took $5\frac{1}{2}$ *lákhs* of *maunds*, or 20,221 tons, against $7\frac{1}{4}$ *lákhs* of *maunds*, or 26,654 tons, sent by rail. The competition between the railway and country boats is regulated by several considerations. In neither case is the freight fixed, that by boats varying from Rs. 19. 8. 0 to Rs. 35 per 100 *maunds;* that by rail and the railway steamer varying from 5 to 11 *ánnás* a *maund.* The average rate by rail is about 7 *ánnás*, and by boat 4 *ánnás* a *maund;* in boats, also, the Sirájganj *maund* of 84·10 lb. is used, while on the railway the *maund* of 80 lbs. is adopted. It is, besides, customary for the boatmen to take more than the nominal consignment, and a thousand *maund* boat thus carries about eleven hundred *maunds.* The following estimate of the cost of conveying 1100 *maunds* of jute from Sirájganj to Calcutta by country boat is given in *The Statistical Reporter*:—'Freight, at 4 *ánnás* per nominal *maund*, Rs. 250; pilot-boat, Rs. 25; servant in charge of the jute, Rs. 10; insurance at $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., Rs. 75; loss on re-sale of mats, Rs. 4. 8. 0: total, Rs. 364. 8. 0. When jute is sent by boat, it is usual to provide the purchase-money by bills drawn at thirty days; and when it is sent by rail, by bills drawn at three days. For the

cost of 1100 *maunds* of jute, the difference between the rates at which these bills can be obtained is Rs. 11. 4. 0; and this amount, added to the boat expenses, makes a total of Rs. 375. 12. 0 for the transmission of 1100 *maunds* of jute, against Rs. 483. 2. 0, the ordinary railway freight for the same amount. The railway is, however, preferred by the poorer traders, who are not trusted by the insurance offices, and who cannot themselves bear the risk. It is also used extensively by all persons in a rising market, when the object is to get the fibre delivered before a fall. The dislike felt to storing jute in Calcutta helps the railway. The fibre is kept in the interior until it is urgently wanted, and then it must be sent by the quickest route.'

'*The Trade in Oil-seeds* has fluctuated greatly. In 1871-72 the exports by steamer were 116,200 *maunds*, or 4272 tons; in 1872-73 they fell to 34,100 *maunds*, or 1254 tons; in 1873-74 they rose again to 54,666 *maunds*, or 2010 tons; and in 1874-75 they fell to 20,700 *maunds*, or 761 tons. This collapse cannot, like the decline in the jute traffic by steamer, be attributed to a diversion of the oil-seed carrying trade from steamers to country boats, for there has been a decrease in the boat traffic also, as registered on the Mátábhángá river and in the Calcutta canals.' The explanation given in *The Statistical Reporter* for November 1875 is, that 'the Franco-Prussian war having interfered with the supplies of seed from Germany, and from certain parts of Russia *via* Germany, which usually supply the English market, an extraordinary demand sprang up for Indian produce. This demand became so great that the ordinary precautions in the selection and shipment of the seeds were neglected, and in many cases the consignments arrived in England damp and worthless. Heavy losses ensued, and the trade became alarmed; and, from whatever cause, the Eastern Bengal oil-seeds were viewed with especial disfavour. . . . The oil-seed exported from Sirájganj is nearly all that of the mustard plant. Of linseed there is a small quantity; of *til* very little. It is brought from Pábná, Maimansinh, and Assam in large quantities, and in small quantities from Bográ and Rangpur. It arrives in bulk, and is generally packed in bags at Sirájganj, though sometimes it is forwarded to its destination in bulk.'

Export of Tobacco.—'The tobacco trade of Sirájganj has been steadily growing. In 1871-72 the exports of tobacco by steamer were 17,600 *maunds*, or 647 tons; in 1872-73, 43,200

maunds, or 1588 tons; in 1873-74, 51,255 *maunds*, or 1884 tons; in 1874-75, they reached 80,969 *maunds*, or 2970 tons. There is also a considerable trade by country boats, 10,646 *maunds* or 391 tons having been entered in the local register as passing downstream from Sirájganj during the month of September 1875. The tobacco plant is grown in Pábná for home use only, and the exports consist of supplies sent by other Districts. In September 1875 there were registered as received from Rangpur 11,059 *maunds*, or 407 tons; from Kuch Behar, 3326 *maunds*, or 122 tons; from Jalpáiguri, 447 *maunds*, or 16½ tons; from Maimansinh, 624 *maunds*, or 23 tons; from Rájsháhí, 350 *maunds*, or 13 tons.'

Gunny.—'Next to raw jute, manufactured jute (gunnies) is the largest of the Sirájganj exports. There were exported in 1871-72, 80,000 *maunds*, or 2941 tons; in 1872-73, 82,100 *maunds*, or 3018 tons; in 1873-74, 82,457 *maunds*, or 3032 tons; in 1874-75, 104,570 *maunds*, or 3844 tons. The gunnies are made at the local jute mill, which labours under the disadvantage of having to bring its coal up from Calcutta. The trade is, however, steadily increasing. The gunnies are sent by steamer to Goálandá, and thence by rail to Calcutta. Coal for the factory is brought by country boat during the rainy season, the only time at which the mill can be reached by water.'

Importation of Salt.—'Of the imports from Calcutta, salt is by far the most important. As the trade is in the hands of a few men, its amount can be accurately estimated by those engaged in it, and they consider that it amounts to six *lákhs* of *maunds* (600,000 *maunds*, equivalent to 22,059 tons). In 1874, 572,093 *maunds* or 21,033 tons of salt were registered on the Nadiyá rivers and Calcutta canals as destined for Pábná District, which includes Sirájganj. The imports by steamer were only 21,590 *maunds* or 794 tons in 1873-74, and fell to 16,334 *maunds* or 601 tons in 1874-75. It is said that the railway has since succeeded in attracting a greater portion of this cargo. In September, 67,330 *maunds* or 2475 tons of salt were registered as sent to Sirájganj. Taking the usual average of consumption, 4¾ *sers* or about 9 lbs. a head per annum, it will be seen that more than five millions of persons must be supplied with salt through Sirájganj. The following figures show the amount of salt sent to the several Districts from Sirájganj during September 1875:—Rangpur, 24,951 *maunds*, or 917 tons; Maimansinh, 15,287 *maunds*, or 562 tons;

Bográ, 6054 *maunds*, or 223 tons; Goálpárá, 5365 *maunds*, or 197 tons; Kuch Behar, 4836 *maunds*, or 178 tons; Jalpáigurí, 1358 *maunds*, or 50 tons; Gauhátí, 331 *maunds*, or 12 tons; Rájsháhí, 255 *maunds*, or 9·4 tons; Dinájpur, 185 *maunds*, or 6·8 tons; Sylhet, 105 *maunds*, or 3·9 tons.

'*The Importations of Piece-goods* by steamer were 29,900 *maunds* or 1099 tons in 1873-74, and 34,425 *maunds* or 1266 tons in 1874-75. On account of its great value, cargo of this sort is seldom sent by country boats, so that the above figures nearly represent the whole trade. In the year 1869-70, the total imports of piece-goods were ascertained to be 28,500 *maunds*, or 1048 tons, so that there has been a slight increase during the last five years. The following statement shows the value of piece-goods exported up-stream from Sirájganj during the months of September and October:—to Maimansinh, Rs. 52,282, or £5228, 4s. od.; Rangpur, Rs. 13,745, or £1374, 10s. od.; Goálpárá, Rs. 2750, or £275; Bográ, Rs. 1831, or £183, 2s. od.; Kuch Behar, Rs. 300, or £30.

'It is clear that Sirájganj does not distribute piece-goods over an area as wide as that which it supplies with salt.'

Miscellaneous Imports.—'Coal is imported from Calcutta for the Sirájganj jute mills. In 1873-74, 25,344 *maunds* or 932 tons were received by steamer; and it is estimated that about 80,000 *maunds* or 2941 tons are received yearly by steamer and country boats. Of iron, 4440 *maunds* or 163 tons arrived by steamer in 1873-74, and 6318 *maunds* or 232 tons in 1874-75; a great part of this is forwarded to Goálpárá, Bográ, Rangpur, and Maimansinh. The imports of brass by steamer were 720 *maunds* or 26½ tons in 1873-74, and 1189 *maunds* or 44 tons in 1874-75.'

Balance of Trade.—'As the exports exceed in value the imports, a sum has to be sent up from Calcutta in cash to adjust the balance. Inquiries were made by the Bank of Bengal, before establishing a branch at Sirájganj, to ascertain what this sum amounted to on the average; and it was found to be Rs. 5,300,000, or £530,000. In 1874-75 the sum imported was Rs. 5,198,000, or £519,800, according to the calculation of the Bank Agent; and of this, Rs. 1,100,000, or £110,000, was re-exported by the Bank or by Government, leaving Rs. 4,098,000, or £409,800, as the amount which was paid to settle the favourable balance. This large sum goes to the *rayats* of this part of the country, after they have bought all the foreign commodities they consume,—salt, iron,

brass, cotton goods, and so forth. It constitutes the fund from which rents are paid and the revenue is discharged.'

Through Trade.—'Reference has hitherto been made to Sirájganj only as an outpost of the Calcutta trade, collecting to a centre the country produce destined for the metropolis, and distributing the Calcutta exports destined for the country. It has, however, relations with some places which do not come under this classification. It supplies a good deal of the goods consumed by the Bengal coolies on the tea estates of Assam. Thus, in the year 1873-74 it exported by steamer to Assam 184,949 *maunds* or 6800 tons of rice, 3683 *maunds* or 135 tons of gram and other grains, and 1701 *maunds* or 62½ tons of sundries, mostly coolie stores. Sirájganj also does a large business in cocoa-nuts. In the month of September it received 199,780 cocoa-nuts from Bengal, of which 25,600 came from Dacca, 11,500 from Jessor, 9800 from Faridpur, 23,000 from Noákhálí, 13,700 from Tipperah, and 3500 from Kumillá. These cocoa-nuts were despatched from Sirájganj to Goálpárá, Kuch Behar, Jalpáiguri, Rangpur, Bográ, Rájsháhí, Dinájpur, and Maimansinh. Lime is received at Sirájganj in large quantities from Sylhet, and there is a considerable trade in oil, fuel, betel-nuts, sugar, and spices.'

Boat Census.—'The municipal committee of the town have twice taken a boat census of Sirájganj, in order to find out how many boats are in the harbour when trade is brisk, what they contain, and whence they come. On the 31st August 1873, 1436 boats were found; on the 4th September 1874 there were 1185 boats. The total amount of goods in the boats on the first occasion was 162,000 *maunds*, or 5956 tons; on the second, 195,000 *maunds*, or 7169 tons. About a *lákh* of *maunds* (3676 tons) of jute formed the greater part of the stock both in 1873 and in 1874.'

Sirájganj Traders.—'There are now at Sirájganj six European firms, or branch firms, and an agency of the Bank of Bengal has been established there. Their principal rivals are not natives of this province, but foreigners from Márwár. These Márwáris, or Káyás as they are called, form a trading community with correspondents along the whole line of the Brahmaputra river, as far as Debrugarh in Upper Assam. They are honest, frugal, diligent, and even enterprising, though but little educated. With more knowledge they would make excellent traders. As it is, they seem to be, with the Europeans, ousting the Bengalís from the profits of the

inland trade. The Bengalís who engage in traffic at Sirájganj generally belong to the caste of Sháhás, and some of them are very intelligent. They are not, however, so united among themselves as the Káyás. They do not trust each other so much, and in speculation they are timid.'

The table on the opposite page shows the amount of steamer traffic between Sirájganj and Calcutta during the four years 1871-72, 1872-73, 1873-74, and 1874-75.

CAPITAL.—The money accumulated in Pábná District, owing to the value of the exports being in excess of that of the imports, is chiefly employed in trade; and a considerable sum is, the Collector reported in 1871, invested in building and fitting out boats. The current rates of interest are as follow:—(*a*) in small transactions, when jewellery or some other article is given in pawn as security, half an *ánná* per rupee per month, or 37½ per cent. per annum; (*b*) in large transactions, with a mortgage upon moveable property, nearly as high; (*c*) in large transactions, with a mortgage on immoveable property, 20 per cent. per annum; (*d*) in the case of small loans to cultivators on their personal security, half an *ánná* per rupee per month, or 37½ per cent. per annum; where the lender has a lien upon the crops, the interest charged is the same as for loans on personal security, unless the borrower assigns a specific share of the crop for payment; (*e*) when a man purchases an estate, from 10 to 12 per cent. per annum is considered a very good return on the outlay.

There is a branch of the Bank of Bengal in the town of Sirájganj. The Collector reports that many of the large native mercantile firms in that town also engage in banking; and advancing money to small traders, to speculators in boats, and even to professional native money-lenders. Any loans, however large, can be obtained by landholders who are able to give good security; small advances are made throughout the District by shopkeepers, who generally combine money-lending with trading operations.

IMPORTED CAPITAL.—The only industries in the District conducted wholly or in part by European agency, or with European capital, are the cultivation and manufacture of indigo, the manufacture of jute, and the trade in this staple. The jute factory near Sirájganj has already been noticed under the head of Manufactures, p. 331. It was established by Mr. Barry, who was for some time Deputy Magistrate at

[*Sentence continued on page* 352.

Steamer Traffic between Sirajganj and Calcutta for the Four Years 1871–75.

	1871–72.		1872–73.		1873–74.		1874–75.	
Exports from Sirajganj.	*maunds.*	tons.	*maunds.*	tons.	*maunds.*	tons.	*maunds.*	tons.
Jute,	1,241,300	45,636	1,508,900	55,474	1,290,483	47,444	631,416	23,214
Gunnies,	80,900	2,941	82,100	3,018	82,457	3,032	104,570	3,844
Oil-seeds,	116,200	4,272	34,100	1,254	54,666	2,010	20,700	761
Rice,	...	...	...	...	5,892	217	...	...
Tobacco,	17,600	647	43,200	1,588	51,255	1,884	80,969	2,977
Sundries,	...	...	...	...	1,167	43	...	...
Total,	1,455,100	53,496	1,668,300	61.334	1,485,920	54,630	837,655	30,796
Imports into Sirajganj.								
Piece-goods,	...	...	...	...	29,900	1,099	34,425	1,266
Rice,	...	...	...	...	11,174	411	40,778	1,499
Coal,	...	...	...	...	25,344	932	...	...
Iron,	...	...	...	...	4,400	163	6,318	232
Brass-ware,	...	...	...	...	720	26½	1,189	44
Salt,	...	...	...	...	21,590	794	16,334	601
Sundries,	...	...	...	...	10,474	385	12,446	458
Total,	...	...	...	...	103,642	3,810½	111,490	4,100

Sentence continued from page 350.]
Sirájganj, and subsequently Member of Parliament for Cork. 'Mr. Barry,' the Collector reports, 'resigned Government service in order to open a general commission business, and to work some hand screws which he had constructed to compress jute for exportation. On his return to Europe, he sold the good-will of his business to a company, which he promoted with the object of erecting a factory for weaving and spinning jute. In April 1867 the affairs of the company were put into the hands of liquidators, as there were no funds to complete the building of the factory. A new association, called the Sirájganj Jute Company (Limited), purchased the works and other assets, which had originally cost £78,000, for £16,500. The capital of the new company was fixed at £65,000, and the total capital introduced by the factory into the Subdivision, up to 1871, may be estimated at £90,000. During the changes in proprietorship the construction of the works went on, and they were opened in October 1869. The building contains 15,000 hundredweight of iron, and 500,000 cubic feet of brickwork. The spinning and weaving is performed by steam power in the ordinary English method, and under the supervision of a European superintendent and European mechanics. Women and children are employed extensively in the higher work, and about 1200 hands of all descriptions are engaged. The principal manufacture consists of gunny bags, which are pressed and sent by steamer to Calcutta.' As already stated, 80,000 *maunds* or 2941 tons of gunnies were exported by steamer to Calcutta in 1871-72, 82,100 *maunds* or 3018 tons in 1872-73, 82,457 *maunds* or 3032 tons in 1873-74, and 104,570 *maunds* or 3844 tons in 1874-75. The Subdivisional officer estimates the value of the gunnies exported in 1874-75 at Rs. 1,202,555, or £120,255, 10s. 0d.

An account of the indigo industry in the District has been already given under the head of Manufactures on page 330.

INSTITUTIONS OR SOCIETIES.—Apart from the Bráhma Samáj, already noticed on page 288, and the Government schools (pp. 360-364) and dispensaries (pp. 375-376), no public institution exists in the District. Attached to the Pábná Government English School, there is a library containing a considerable number of English and Bengalí books, and several English and vernacular newspapers are also subscribed for.

NEWSPAPERS.—The only newspapers that have been published within the present limits of the District are the *Desh hitaishíní* of

Sirájganj, and the *Jnán bikáshiní* of Chátmahar. The *Desh-hitaishíní*, or *Well-Wisher of the Country*, was in existence for several years, but ceased to appear about the close of the year 1874. Its tone was favourable to the large landowners of the District, and such influence as it possessed was exerted against the *rayats* in their struggle with the *zamíndárs*. Its circulation was always very small, and its influence weak. The *Jnán bikáshini*, or *Publisher of Knowledge*, had a shorter life than the *Desh hitaishíní*.

INCOME.—According to the Income-tax returns for 1870-71, the total amount of incomes exceeding Rs. 500 or £50 per annum was approximately £232,600. The amount of Income tax realized in that year, with the rate of assessment at an average rate of $3\frac{1}{8}$ per cent. on incomes above £50, was £7269. In the following year the rate of the tax was reduced to $1\frac{1}{24}$ per cent., and the minimum of the incomes liable to assessment raised to Rs. 750, or £75. The amount of tax realized in 1871-72 was £1499, 8s. 0d. The total number of incomes assessed in 1870-71, or, in other words, the number of annual incomes above £50 each, was 2048.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—The District was constituted in May 1832. Its total revenue from that date till the 31st March 1833 was £1700, 16s. 0d.; its expenditure during the same period being only £480, 2s. 0d. In 1850-51 the revenue amounted to £32,404, 6s. 0d., and the expenditure to £10,231, 16s. 0d. In 1870-71 the actual revenue was £53,855, 11s. 10d., and the civil expenditure £22,716, 17s. 9d.

The balance sheet on the following page exhibits in detail the net revenue and expenditure of the District for the year 1870-71, after omitting all items of deposit and account not representing actual income or expenditure.

THE LAND TAX AND SUBDIVISION OF ESTATES.—In the year 1837, there were 896 estates on the District rent-roll, held by 1691 registered proprietors or coparceners, who paid a total land revenue of £34,118, 8s. 0d.; equivalent to an average payment of £38, 1s. 7d. from each estate, and £20, 3s. $6\frac{1}{2}$d. from each individual proprietor or coparcener. By 1850, the number of estates had increased to 1048, and the number of registered proprietors to 1798, subject to the payment of a total land revenue of £35,401, 16s. 0d.; equivalent to an average payment of £33, 15s. $7\frac{1}{4}$d. from each estate, and £19, 13s. $9\frac{1}{2}$d. from each proprietor. By 1870-71 the

[*Sentence continued on page* 355.

Balance Sheet of Pabna District for 1870-71.

Revenue.		Expenditure.	
1. Land Revenue (including Revenue from Fisheries),	£32,082 6 0	1. Judicial Charges (including Salaries, Establishments, and Contingencies),	£3,138 10 1
2. Stamps,	8,841 0 0	2. Magisterial Charges,	5,110 0 0
3. Excise,	2,604 18 0	3. Collectorate,	1,376 10 0
4. Opium,	1,302 12 0	4. Medical,	1,337 6 11
5. Income Tax,	6,984 12 0	5. Police,	7,868 8 0
6. Registration,	248 5 10	6. Jail,	548 10 0
7. Local Funds,	103 8 0	7. Education,	1,567 2 10
8. Ferries,	209 0 0	8. Public Works,	49 11 4
9. Magisterial Fines,	873 3 8	9. District Roads,	1,168 8 0
10. Post Office,	606 6 4	10. Pensions,	139 17 7
		11. Interest,	42 13 0
		12. Law Charges,	67 6 0
		13. Miscellaneous,	302 14 0
Total,	£53,855 11 10	Total,	£22,716 17 9

Sentence continued from page 353.]
number of estates on the rent-roll had decreased, owing to transfers of area to neighbouring Districts, while there was an increase in the number of proprietors. The total number of estates was 876, held by 2003 registered proprietors or coparceners. The current land revenue paid by these 2003 proprietors amounted to £31,763, making an average payment of £36, 5s. 2¼d. from each estate, and £15, 17s. 1¾d. from each proprietor. Of the 876 estates on the rent-roll in 1870-71, 621 were subject to the payment of land revenue of under £10, 242 to more than £10 each but under £500 each, and 13 to above £500 each. Of the 2003 proprietors and coparceners of these estates, 1008 paid a land revenue of under £10 each, 890 more than £10 but less than £500, and 105 above £500 each. According to the latest return submitted to the Board of Revenue, giving statistics corrected up to the 31st March 1875, it appears that the total area paying land revenue to the Pábná Collectorate was at that date 1318 square miles 632 acres. Since then a small number of estates, situated within the criminal jurisdiction of other Districts, but which formerly paid their revenue to Pábná, have been removed from the rent-roll; while in a larger number of cases, estates situated within the jurisdiction of the Magistrate of Pábná, but paying land revenue to the Collectors of Rájsháhí and Maimansinh, have been placed on the rent-roll of Pábná District. At present (March 1876), the Pábná Collector receives land revenue from an approximate area of 1474 square miles 386 acres. The area under the jurisdiction of the Magistrate is, however, 1838 square miles; and it follows, therefore, that estates situated within the criminal jurisdiction of this District, comprising a total area of 363 square miles 254 acres, pay their land revenue to other Collectors.

MAGISTERIAL, CIVIL, AND REVENUE COURTS.—In 1832, the year in which the District was formed, there was only 1 Magisterial Court in Pábná. The number of Civil and Revenue Courts was 3; but not even one Covenanted Officer was stationed in the District throughout the year. In 1850 there were 2 Magisterial Courts, 5 Civil and Revenue Courts, and 1 Covenanted Officer at work throughout the year. By 1862, the number of Magisterial Courts had been increased to 9, and the Civil and Revenue Courts to 25; but there was still only one Covenanted Officer in the District. In 1869 the Magisterial Courts were still 9 in number; there were only 12 Civil and

Revenue Courts, but the average number of Covenanted Officers at work throughout the year had increased to 4.

RENT SUITS.—The number of rent cases under the provisions of Act X. of 1859, or laws based on Act X., is as follows:—In 1861-62, 5286 original suits were instituted, and 843 miscellaneous applications were made; in 1862-63, the original suits decreased to 3473, but the miscellaneous applications increased to 1170. By 1866-67, the number of original suits had diminished to less than one-half of the total in 1862-63, but the miscellaneous applications had more than doubled: the original suits instituted in 1866-67 were 1594, and the number of miscellaneous applications 2755. In 1868-69, 1841 original suits were instituted, and the number of miscellaneous applications was 2519.

POLICE.—For police purposes, Pábná District is divided into the following eight police circles (*thánás*):—(1) Pábná, (2) Dulái, (3) Mathurá and Chátmahar in the *Sadr* or Headquarters Subdivision, (5) Sháhzádpur, (6) Ullápárá, (7) Sirájganj, and (8) Ráiganj in the Sirájganj Subdivision. There are also the following thirteen out-posts:—Atáikulá and Arankholá, subordinate to the police station of Pábná; Hándiál and Faridpur, subordinate to Chátmahar; Sujánagar and Khetupárá, subordinate to Dulái; Máldah and Berá, subordinate to Mathurá; Supgáchhá, subordinate to Sirájganj; Chauháli and Mánpur, subordinate to Sháhzádpur; and Pángási and Tárás, subordinate to Ráiganj. The present police force of the District consists of three distinct bodies, namely, the regular or District police; a municipal police for the protection of the towns of Pábná and Sirájganj; and a village watch or rural police. The strength and cost of maintenance of each of these bodies is as follows:—

THE REGULAR POLICE consisted of the following strength at the end of 1872:—2 superior European officers, maintained at a total salary of Rs. 900 a month, or £1080 a year; 5 subordinate officers on a salary of upwards of Rs. 100 a month, or £120 a year each, and 54 officers on less than Rs. 100 a month, or £120 a year, maintained at a total cost, for both classes of subordinate officers, of Rs. 2035 a month, or £2442 a year, or an average pay of Rs. 34. 7. 10 a month, or £41, 7s. 9d. a year for each subordinate officer; and 259 foot police constables, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 1712 a month, or £2054, 8s. 0d. a year, or an average pay of Rs. 6. 9. 9 a month, or £7, 18s. 7d. a year for each man. The

other expenses connected with the District police are—a sum of Rs. 150 a month, or £180 a year, as travelling expenses for the District Superintendent and Assistant District Superintendent; Rs. 207. 6. 8 a month, or £248, 18s. od. a year, for pay and travelling allowances of their establishments; and Rs. 1335. 4. 0 a month, or £1602, 6s. od. a year, for contingencies and all other expenses, bringing up the total cost of the regular police in Pábná District in 1872 to Rs. 6339. 10. 8 a month, or £7607, 12s. od. a year, and its total strength to 320 men of all ranks. The area of Pábná District is returned in the Census Report at 1966 square miles, and the total population was ascertained by the Census of 1872 to be 1,211,594 persons. According to these figures, the total strength of the regular police is one man to every 6·14 square miles of the District area, or one man to every 3786 of the population. The annual cost of maintenance is equal to Rs. 38. 11. 2 or £3, 17s. 4d. per square mile of area, or 1 *ánná* or 1½d. per head of the population.

THE MUNICIPAL POLICE at the end of 1872 consisted of a force of 6 officers and 89 men, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 538. 1. 4 a month, or £645, 14s. od. a year. According to the Report of the Inspector-General of Police, the total town population protected by the municipal police is 37,715, and there is, therefore, one policeman to every 397 inhabitants. The cost of the municipal police in 1872, as compared with the town population, was 2 *ánnás* 8 *pie* or 4d. per head of the population.

THE RURAL POLICE, or village watch, in 1872 numbered 2803 men, maintained by the villagers at an estimated cost of Rs. 76,235 or £7623, 10s. od.; there is, therefore, one watchman to every ·70 of a square mile of area, or one to every 432 of the population. Each village watchman has, on an average, charge of 71 houses, and receives an average pay in money or lands of Rs. 2. 4. 3 a month, or £2, 14s. 5d. a year.

Including, therefore, the regular District police, the municipal or town police, and the rural constabulary, the machinery for protecting person and property in Pábná District consisted at the end of 1872 of a total force of 3218 officers and men, equivalent to an average of one man to every ·61 of a square mile as compared with the area, or one man to every 376 souls as compared with the population. The aggregate cost of maintaining this force in 1872 amounted to Rs. 13,230. 10. 8 a month, or a total for the

year of £15,876, 16s. od., equal to a charge of Rs. 80. 12. 1 or £8, 1s. 6d. per square mile of area, or 2 *ánnás* 1 *pie* or 3⅛d. per head of the population.

CRIMINAL STATISTICS.—During the year 1872, 2810 cognisable cases (those in which the police may arrest without a warrant) were reported to the police, of which 883 were discovered to be false. Convictions were obtained in 419 cases, or 21·74 per cent. of the 'true' cases; the number of persons convicted being 587, or 1 to every 2064 of the population. Of non-cognisable cases, 3053 were instituted, in which process issued against 2860 persons, of whom 913, or 31·92 per cent., were convicted; the proportion of persons convicted of non-cognisable offences being 1 to every 1327 of the population.

Excluding cases reported as false, the total number of cognisable and non-cognisable offences investigated in Pábná District in 1872 was 4980, in which 1500 persons were convicted, or one person convicted of an offence of one class or the other to every 807 of the District population.

JAIL STATISTICS.—In 1857-58, the first year for which materials are available, the daily average number of prisoners in the Pábná jail was 147, the total number of civil, criminal, and under-trial prisoners admitted during the year being 1040. The prisoners discharged in that year were classified as follows:—Transferred, 104; released, 770; escaped, 2; died, 15: total, 891. In 1860-61, the jail returns show a daily average number of 195 prisoners; the total admissions during the year being 1501. The discharges were —transferred, 406; released, 865; escaped, 9; died, 12: total, 1292. In 1870, the daily average jail population was 186; the total number of prisoners admitted during the year being 973. The discharges were—transferred, 113; released, 919; died, 9: total, 1041.

In 1857-58, the proportion of prisoners admitted to the jail hospital amounted to 131·97 per cent., and the deaths to 15, or 10·20 per cent. of the average jail population. In 1860-61, the admissions to the hospital amounted to 83·58 per cent., and the deaths to 12, or 6·15 per cent. of the average jail population. In 1870, the admissions to the jail hospital rose to 299·46 per cent., but the deaths were only 9, or 4·83 per cent. of the average jail population.

The average cost per prisoner in Pábná jail, including rations, establishment, hospital charges, clothing, contingencies, and all other

charges, except the prison police guard, is returned as follows:—In 1854-55, it amounted to Rs. 36. 7. 4, or £3, 12s. 11d. per prisoner; in 1857-58, to Rs. 37. 8. 8, or £3, 15s. 1d. per prisoner; in 1860-61, to Rs. 31. 13. 1, or £3, 3s. 7d. per prisoner; and in 1870, to Rs. 52. 1. 9, or £5, 4s. 2d. per prisoner. The cost of the jail police guard in 1870 amounted to an average of Rs. 14. 6. 1, or £1, 8s. 9d. per prisoner, making a gross charge to Government of Rs. 66. 7. 10, or £6, 12s. 11d. per prisoner. The Inspector-General of Jails, in his Report for 1870, returns the total cost in that year of the Pábná jail and lock-ups at Sirájganj and Kumárkhálí[1] at £1252, 15s. 2d., not including the cost of alterations and repairs. Excluding also the pay of the jail police guard, which is included in the police budget of the District, the cost of the jail amounted to £1023, 1s. 6d.

JAIL MANUFACTURES.—In 1854-55, the receipts arising from the sale of jail manufactures, together with the value of stock remaining on hand at the end of the year, amounted to £188, 9s. 8d., and the charges to £66, 14s. 2d., showing an excess of receipts over charges of £121, 15s. 6d.; the average earnings of each prisoner employed on manufactures amounted to Rs. 19. 15. 4, or £1, 19s. 11d. In 1857-58, the total receipts amounted to £123, 17s. 7d., and the charges to £53, 3s. 2d., leaving a profit of £70, 14s. 5d.; average earning by each prisoner engaged in manufactures, Rs. 18. 2. 1, or £1, 16s. 3d. In 1860-61, the receipts amounted to £133, 8s. 1d., and the charges to £62, 4s. 6d., leaving a surplus or profit of £71, 3s. 7d.; average earning by each prisoner engaged in manufactures, Rs. 9. 2. 0, or 18s. 3d. In 1870, the total credits arising from jail manufactures amounted to £707, 1s. 1d., and the total debits to £386, 17s. 11d., leaving a surplus or profit of £320, 3s. 2d.; average earning by each prisoner engaged in manufactures, Rs. 56. 2. 8, or £5, 12s. 4d. Deducting the profits derived from prison labour from the cost of the jail, the net cost of the Pábná jail and lock-ups in 1870 (exclusive of the police guard) amounted to £702, 18s. 4d.

In 1872, the statistics of Pabná jail and the lock-up at Sirájganj were as follow:—The daily average number of civil prisoners in jail was ·80; under-trial prisoners, 16·22; labouring convicts, 93·33; non-labouring convicts, 21·02; total, 131·37, of whom 2·68 were females. These figures give one prisoner always in jail to every 9223 of the

[1] Kumárkhálí is no longer within the District of Pábná, the Subdivision having been removed in the year 1871.

District population, and one female to every 227,268 of the total female population.

The total cost of Pábná jail in 1872, excluding public works, manufacture department, and prison guard, amounted to £735, 7s. 2d., or an average of Rs. 55. 15. 6 or £5, 11s. 11d. per head of the jail population. The total credits from jail manufactures, including the stock remaining on hand at the end of the year, amounted in 1872 to £424, os. 2d., and the total debits to £372, 7s. 9d., leaving an excess of credits over debits of £51, 12s. 5d. The actual money cost of the manufacture department during the year amounted to £272, 12s. 4d., and the cash remitted to the treasury to £320, 10s. 7d., leaving an actual cash profit of £47, 18s. 3d., or an average earning of Rs. 12. 8. 6 or £1, 5s. 0d. by each prisoner engaged in manufactures. Out of 93·33 labouring prisoners, 38·22 were employed in manufactures, the remainder being either engaged in jail duties or unable to work on account of sickness, weakness, or old age. The prisoners actually engaged in manufactures, forming 38·22 per cent. of the jail population, were distributed as follows:—On gunny weaving, 8·23; on gardening, 9·70; on cloth weaving, ·30; on brick making, 8·14; on bamboo, rattan, and reed works, 5·92; on oil pressing, 5·07; on grinding flour, 74; on miscellaneous manufactures, ·12: total, 38·22.

Educational Statistics.—The tables on pp. 362-363 have been compiled from the Annual Reports of the Director of Public Instruction. They show, in a comparative form, the Educational Statistics of Pábná District for the selected years 1856-57, 1860-61, and 1870-71. It appears that in 1856-57 there were in the District only 5 Government and aided schools, attended by a total of 508 pupils. By 1860-61, the number of Government and aided schools had increased to 9, and the number of pupils to 739. By 1870-71 (*i.e.* even before Sir George Campbell's reforms), the Government and aided schools had increased by more than seven times, or to 65 such schools, attended by a total of 2775 pupils. Of these 65 schools, three were girls' schools, attended by 64 pupils. The cost to Government of the educational institutions in the District increased from £446, os. 1d. in 1856-57, to £518, 15s. 3d. in 1860-61, and to £1572, 19s. 5d. in 1870-71. The amount derived from fees, subscriptions, and other private sources was £310, 18s. 2d. in 1856-57, £373, 7s. 6d. in 1860-61, and £1827 in 1870-71. The total expenditure on Government and aided

schools was £673, 2s. 7d. in 1856-57, £974, 11s. 6d. in 1860-61, and £3394, 2s. 10d. in 1870-71. In attendance at the Government and aided schools, the Muhammadans of Pábná, as elsewhere in Bengal, are far behind the Hindus. According to the Census of 1872, the Muhammadans form 69·9 per cent. of the District population, but of the pupils attending Government and aided schools in 1870-71 only 297, or 10·70 per cent. were Musalmán children.

SIR GEORGE CAMPBELL'S EDUCATIONAL REFORMS.—Since the year 1870-71 a great extension of primary education has taken place under the system introduced by Sir George Campbell and explained in other of my Statistical Accounts. On the 31st March 1875 there were 220 aided vernacular schools of the lower class, attended by 6886 pupils. The total number of Government and aided schools was 276; which were attended by 9701 pupils, of whom 6167 were Hindus, 3525 Muhammadans, 8 Christians, and 1 belonged to none of these religious denominations. Of the total of 9701 pupils, 9619 were boys and 82 girls. Taking the area of the District at 1838 square miles, as returned by the Boundary Commissioner in March 1875, and the population as consisting of 1,211,594 souls, there is one Government or aided school for every 6·7 square miles, and for every 4390 of the population. With a very few exceptions, the children at the 276 Government and aided schools in Pábná are under twelve years of age; and it is therefore possible, from the Statistics given by the Census, to determine approximately the proportion of boys and girls in the District receiving education in those schools. The total number of children under twelve years of age in Pábná is 426,222, of whom 232,596 are boys and 193,626 girls. It appears, therefore, that 4·1 per cent. of the boys and ·04 per cent. of the girls attend the Government and aided schools; or, if we take boys and girls together, it appears that 2·3 per cent. of the juvenile population are receiving an education in schools under Government control.

The table on page 364, which is taken from the Report of the Director of Public Instruction for 1872-73, illustrates the progress in the extension of primary instruction which took place in the first two years during which the reforms of Sir George Campbell came into operation. [*Vide* table, p. 364.]

POSTAL STATISTICS.—The tabular statement on p. 365 shows the number of letters, newspapers, parcels, and books received and

[*Sentence continued on page* 365.

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS OF THE DISTRICT OF PABNA, FOR THE YEARS 1856-57, 1860-61, AND 1870-71.

CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOOLS.	Number of Schools on 31st March.			NUMBER OF PUPILS ON 31ST MARCH.											
				Hindus.			Muhammadans.			Others.			Total.		
	1856-57	1860-61	1870-71	1856-57	1860-61	1870-71	1856-57	1860-61	1870-71	1856-57	1860-61	1870-71	1856-57	1860-61	1870-71
Government English School,[1] .	1	1	1	121	108	157	3	2	8	...	...	2	124	110	167
Government Vernacular Schools,	...	...	2	...	...	82	...	...	9	...	...	...	...	...	91
Government Normal School, .	...	...	1	...	...	74	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	75
Aided English Schools, . .	3	4[2]	15	272	275	565	23	19	20	1	...	...	296	294	585
Aided Vernacular Schools, . .	1	4	43	88	321	1521	...	14	254	...	...	8	88	335	1783
Aided Girls' Schools, . . .	...	...	3	...	...	64	...	...	5	...	...	...	...	...	69
Girls' Class attached to Aided Vernacular School, . . .	...	...	...	...	...	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5
Total, . . .	5	9	65	481	704	2468	26	35	297	1	...	10	508	739	2775

[1] Established in 1853. Fee varies from R. 1 to Rs. 2 per month, or from £1, 4s. to £2, 8s. per year.

[2] For one of these schools the return of Income and Expenditure is not procurable.

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS OF THE DISTRICT OF PABNA—*continued.*

CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOOLS.	Cost to Government.			Fees, Subscriptions, etc.			Charges incurred during the Year.		
	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Government English School, . . .	279 2 2	294 7 5	261 11 10	103 17 9	120 18 6	260 5 3	382 19 11	425 9 11	521 17 1
Government Vernacular Schools, . . .	...	...	37 12 3	...	...	14 15 9	...	...	51 11 4
Government Normal School, . . .	...	...	222 15 10	...	...	...	...	...	222 15 10
Aided English Schools,	157 4 2	161 1 10	428 13 2	194 11 11	173 11 2	765 7 0	269 19 3	414 8 10	1194 0 2
Aided Vernacular Schools, . . .	9 13 9	63 6 0	561 2 0	12 8 6	78 17 10	730 7 8	20 3 5	134 12 9	1291 9 8
Aided Girls' Schools, .	...	...	60 14 4	...	...	56 4 4	...	...	112 8 9
Girls' Class attached to Aided Vernacular School, . . .	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Total, . .	446 0 1	518 15 3	1572 9 5	310 18 2	373 7 6	1827 0 0	673 2 7	974 11 6	3394 2 10

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT ILLUSTRATING THE STATE OF EDUCATION IN PABNA DISTRICT IN THE TWO YEARS 1871–72 AND 1872–73.

CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOOLS.	Number of Schools.		Number of Pupils on 31st March.		Average Attendance.		EXPENDITURE.					
							Government.		Other Sources.		Total.	
	1871-72	1872 73	1871-72	1872 73	1871-72	1872-73	1871-72.	1872-73.	1871-72.	1872-73.	1871-72.	1872-73.
							£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Higher Schools—												
Government, . . .	1	1	148	128	108	102	261 10 5	240 0 0	219 13 7	196 19 8	481 4 0	436 19 8
Aided, ...	1	2	216	323	141	226	27 0 0	149 13 10	...	315 18 9	27 0 0	465 12 7
Total, ...	2	3	364	451	249	328	288 10 5	389 13 10	219 13 7	512 18 5	508 4 0	902 12 3
Middle Schools—												
Government, . . .	3	2	140	106	84	71	51 13 7	49 1 0	35 13 4	23 10 10	87 6 11	72 11 10
Aided, ...	48	45	2234	1924	1456	1333	859 12 1	821 7 6	1464 8 8	1362 0 2	2324 0 9	2183 7 8
Unaided, ...	7	2	366	79	256	50	...	87 13 10	....	20 16 7	...	108 10 5
Total, ...	58	49	2740	2109	1796	1454	911 5 8	958 2 4	1500 2 0	1406 7 7	2411 7 8	2364 9 11
Primary Schools—												
Government, . . .	...	1	...	37	...	30	...	20 8 6	...	9 11 6	...	30 0 0
Aided, ...	13	177	435	5708	283	4250	64 5 0	284 4 5	65 0 10	238 7 7	129 5 10	522 12 0
Unaided, ...	28	13	533	400	...	311	...	...	10 18 0	6 15 5	10 18 0	6 15 5
Total, ...	41	191	968	6145	283	4591	64 5 0	304 12 11	75 18 10	254 14 6	140 3 10	559 7 5
Normal School—												
Government, . . .	1	1	87	68	44	58	287 18 6	284 19 10	...	1 19 9	287 18 6	286 19 7
Girls' School—												
Aided, ...	2	3	85	60	37	33	34 0 0	49 4 0	51 8 10	52 4 0	85 8 10	101 8 0
Grand Total, . .	104	247	4244	8833	2409	6464	1585 19 7	1986 12 11	1847 3 3	2228 4 3	3433 2 10	4214 17 2

Sentence continued from page 361.]
despatched through the District post office in the years 1861-62, 1865-66, and 1870-71; it also shows for the same years the income and expenditure of the Postal Department in the District. In 1861-62 there was a profit of £330, 15s. 7d.; in 1865-66 a loss of £325, 1s. 7d.; and in 1870-71 a profit of £606, 6s. 4d. :—

POST OFFICE STATISTICS.

	1861-62.		1865-66.		1870-71.	
	Received.	Despatched.	Received.	Despatched.	Received.	Despatched.
Letters, ...	55,496	49,888	61,660	53,779	132,845	Statistics not obtainable.
Newspapers, . .	8,922	188	4,938	430	6,299	
Parcels, ...	2,180	474	1,468	673	827	
Books, ...	...	...	...	...	1,056	
Total, . . .	66,598	50,550	68,066	54,882	141,027	...
	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£ s. d.	
Proceeds of sale of Postage Stamps,	336 14 3		363 1 4		703 14 3	
Cash Collections, .	254 2 0		238 17 8		1932 16 11	
Total Receipts, .	590 16 3		601 19 0		2636 11 2[1]	
Total Expenditure,	260 0 8		927 0 7		2030 4 10	

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS.—Pábná District is divided into the two following Subdivisions. The area and population statistics are taken from the Census Report, and refer to the year 1872; the administrative figures having been supplied in a special return by the Collector in 1870.

THE SADR OR HEADQUARTERS SUBDIVISION contained in 1872 an area of 935 square miles, with 1300 villages, 97,350 houses, and a total population of 555,019 souls; of whom 185,826 were Hindus, 368,949 Muhammadans, 43 Christians, and 201 of other denominations; proportion of Muhammadans to total population, 66·5 per cent.; proportion of males to total population, 49·5 per cent.; average number of persons per square mile, 594; number

[1] Exclusive of receipts from sale of Service Stamps for official correspondence, which in 1870-71 amounted to £21, 14s. Service Stamps were introduced in 1866.

of villages per square mile, 1·39; number of houses per square mile, 104; number of persons per village, 427; number of inmates per house, 5·7. The Subdivision consists of the 4 police circles (*thánás*) of Pábná, Dulái, Mathurá, and Chátmahar. In 1869 it contained 11 Magisterial and Revenue Courts, and a total police force of 314 officers and men. The village watch or rural police in the same year numbered 1222 men. The separate cost of the Subdivisional administration amounted to £10,441, 6s. od.

THE SIRAJGANJ SUBDIVISION was established in November 1845. It contained in 1872 an area of 1031 square miles, with 1492 villages, 100,870 houses, and a total population of 656,575 souls, of whom 175,488 were Hindus, 478,278 Muhammadans, 55 Christians, and 2754 belonged to other denominations: proportion of Muhammadans to total population, 72·9 per cent.; proportion of males to total population, 49·9 per cent.; average number of persons per square mile, 637; number of villages per square mile, 1·45; number of houses per square mile, 98; number of persons per village, 440; number of inmates per house, 6·5. The Subdivision consists of the 4 police circles of Sháhzádpur, Ullápára, Sirájganj, and Ráiganj. In 1869 it contained 4 Magisterial and Revenue Courts, a police force of 133 officers and men, and a village watch of 1018 men. The separate cost of Subdivisional administration amounted to £6380, 8s. od.

The Subdivision of Kumárkhálí, formed in August 1859, was removed from Pábná District in 1871. It contained in 1869 2 Magisterial and Revenue Courts, a police force of 82 officers and men, and a village watch of 414 men. The separate cost of Subdivisional administration amounted to £3099.

FISCAL DIVISIONS.—In 1866, the District of Pábná (including Kumárkhálí) contained 47 *parganás* or Fiscal Divisions. The following list, taken from the statistics of the Board of Revenue, gives their names, with the number of estates, the land revenue, and area of each. As to its untrustworthiness, see *post*, p. 369:—

(1) AMIRABAD: number of estates, 3; Government land revenue, £474, 4s. od.; area, 9417 acres.

(2) ATIA: 4 estates; revenue, £80, 12s. od.; area, 5571 acres.

(3) BAJU CHAPPA: 42 estates; revenue, £1636; area, 52,138 acres.

(4) BAJURAS MAHABATPUR: 11 estates; revenue, £921, 4s. od.; area, 24,677 acres.

(5) BAJURAS NAZIRPUR: 17 estates; revenue, £1518, 8s. od.; area, 27,082 acres.

(6) BARABAJU: 1 estate; revenue, £15, 10s. od.; area, 719 acres.

(7) BELGACHHI: 12 estates; revenue, £34, 18s. od.; area, 967 acres.

(8) BHAR FATHIJANGPUR: 1 estate; revenue, £5, 4s. od.; area, 56 acres.

(9) BRAHMAPUR: 3 estates; revenue, £143, 18s. od.; area, 4591 acres.

(10) CHAPLIA TAPPA: 4 estates; revenue, £336, 10s. od.; area, 10,479 acres.

(11) DAKSHIN BIRAHIMPUR; 3 estates; revenue, £1903, 4s. od.; area, 37,903 acres.

(12) DATHIA JAHANGIRPUR: 2 estates; revenue, £29, 16s. od.; area, 499 acres.

(13) GANGAPUT: no estates paying revenue to the Pábná Collector; area, 1500 acres.

(14) GOPINATHPUR: no estates paying revenue to the Pábná Collector; area, 1032 acres.

(15) HAPANIA: 3 estates; revenue, £48, 6s. od.; area, 2611 acres.

(16) ISLAMPUR; 32 estates; revenue, £3831, 6s. od.; area, 61,047 acres.

(17) JAHANGIRABAD: 23 estates; revenue, £954, 4s. od.; area, 14,685 acres.

(18) JIORAKHI: 2 estates; revenue, £20, 8s. od.; area, 706 acres.

(19) KAGMARI; 2 estates; revenue, £29, 10s. od.; area, 1605 acres.

(20) KATARMAHAL: 3 estates; revenue, £29, 6s. od.; area, 285 acres.

(21) KANTANAGAR: 6 estates; revenue, £487, 18s. od.; area, 8561 acres.

(22) KASIMNAGAR: 2 estates; revenue, £1, 14s. od.; area, 166 acres.

(23) KHALSI TAPPA: 22 estates; revenue, £475, 14s. od.; area, 1158 acres.

(24) KURURIA: 1 estate; revenue, £426, 14s. od.; area, 4819 acres.

(25) MIHMANSHAHI: 1 estate; revenue, £4, 16s. od.; area, 112 acres.

(26) MOHIMSHAHI: 69 estates; revenue, £159, 16s. od.; area, 8411 acres.

(27) MUHAMMADSHAHI: 10 estates; revenue, £545, 6s. od.; area, 17,895 acres.

(28) NALDI: 2 estates; revenue, £33, 18s. od.; area, 1665 acres.

(29) NASIBSHAHI: 46 estates; revenue, £181, 18s. od.; area, 4162 acres.

(30) NASRATSHAHI: 55 estates; revenue, £2169, 16s. od.; area, 60,681 acres.

(31) NAZIR INAITPUR: 3 estates; revenue, £169, 14s. od.; area, 3063 acres.

(32) ROKANPUR: no estates paying revenue to the Pábná Treasury; area, 3800 acres.

(33) SAKHINI TAPPA: 48 estates; revenue, £248, 18s. od.; area, 17,341 acres.

(34) SATUR: 4 estates; revenue, £6, 2s. od.; area, 200 acres.

(35) SENBARSHA: 1 estate; revenue, £14, 18s. od.; area, 1125 acres.

(36) SHAHAJAPUR: 1 estate; revenue, 6s.; area, 15 acres.

(37) SHAH AUJIAL: 1 estate; revenue, £452, 2s. od.; area, 9029 acres.

(38) SINDURI: 70 estates; revenue, £2722, 12s. od.; area, 58,844 acres.

(39) SONABAJU: 4 estates; revenue, £125, 14s. od.; area, 4329 acres.

(40) SUDKI: 7 estates; revenue, £67, 10s. od.; area, 1124 acres.

(41) SUJABAD: 1 estate; revenue, 16s.; area, 14 acres.

(42) TARAGUNIA: 2 estates; revenue, £27, 4s. od.; area, 1845 acres.

(43) TARA UJIAL: 1 estate; revenue, £7, 6s. od.; area, 69 acres.

(44) UTTAR BIRAHIMPUR: 19 estates; revenue, £1620, 8s. od.; area, 56,428 acres.

(45) YARPUR: 2 estates; revenue, £7, 10s. od.; area, 1063 acres.

(46) YUSUFNAGAR: 2 estates; revenue, £585, 16s. od.; area, 16,733 acres.

(47) YUSUFSHAHI: 256 estates; revenue, £6621, 2s. 0d.; area 199,007 acres.

The totals obtained from the preceding list are as follow:—47 *parganás*, containing 804 estates, paying a land revenue of £29,177, 16s., and covering an area of 739,229 acres, or 1155·05 square miles. In correction of these figures, which cannot be accepted as accurate, even for the year 1866 to which they primarily refer, the following are the latest statistics available:—In March 1876, Pábná District contained 38 recognised *parganás*, the names of which are given below, and materially differ from those in the preceding list. The number of estates on the rent-roll of the District in 1870-71 was 876; and the amount of land revenue paid in that year was £31,763. The Census Report of 1872 returns the area of the District at 1966 square miles. According to a special return made by the Boundary Commissioner in 1875, the area was 1838 square miles; in March 1876, after certain transfers, only about 1474 square miles actually paid land revenue into the District Treasury.

In 1870 the Collector reported that Pábná District, inclusive of Kumárkhálí, comprised 44 *parganás;* but owing to the transfers that have been made since, the District contains at present (March 1876) only the following 38 *parganás*:—(1) Amírábád, (2) Atiá, (3) Bara Báju, (4) Báju Chappa, (5) Bájurás Mahabatpur, (6) Bájurás Názirpur, (7) Bhar Fathijangpur, (8) Byas *tappá*, (9) Chaplia *tappá*, (10) Dáthiá Jahángírpur, (11) Gatrahátta, (12) Guátá Gangárámpur, (13) Hándiál, (14) Jahángírábád, (15) Islámpur, (16) Kágmári, (17) Kántanagar, (18) Kásimnagar, (19) Kátármahál, (20) Khalsí, (21) Mihmánsháhí, (22) Muhammadsháhí, (23) Nij Bájurás, (24) Pukhariá, (25) Rokanpur, (26) Sákhiní *tappá*, (27) Senbarsha, (28) Sinduri, (29) Sháhájápur, (30) Sháhá-ujiál, (31) Sonábáju, (32) Sujábád, (33) Táráguniá, (34) Tárá Ujiál, (35) Uttar Biráhimpur, (36) Yárpur, (37) Yusufnagar *tappá*, (38) Yusufsháhí.

CLIMATE.—The climate of the District is mild, and, compared with the rest of Bengal, not unhealthy. The cold weather lasts four months, beginning at the end of October, and ending about the first week in March. The rainfall is reported by the Civil Surgeon to vary in ordinary years from 50 to 70 inches. The average annual rainfall at the Pábná Civil Station during the nine years ending 1874 was 69·20 inches, of which 16·35 inches fell between January and May inclusive, 47·43 from June to September, and 5·42 inches

from October to December. The average rainfall in the Sirájganj Subdivision for the five years ending 1874 is reported at 58·22 inches. The table on the opposite page, compiled from the Meteorological Report for 1873, gives the monthly rainfall, and the number of days on which rain fell during each month in 1871 and 1873 (the year preceding the Behar famine). It also shows the mean monthly temperature in 1873, as returned by the Civil Surgeon.

CYCLONES.—On the 20th September 1872 a severe cyclone swept over Pábná. At 11 A.M. the gale commenced, and after veering round from east to north-east, the cyclone burst on the District, and continued till about 4.40 P.M., at which time the wind was due north. There was then a lull for about twenty minutes, but at 5 P.M. the wind began again to blow violently from the north-west, though not with so much force as before. By 6 P.M. the wind had changed to west-south-west, and after that it subsided gradually.

In the town of Pábná, native huts were blown down in all directions, plantains were levelled to the ground, several large trees were uprooted, and the Dogáchhí and *bázár* roads were blocked by fallen branches and trees. On the Ichhámatí river, two large laden boats, besides a few small ones, were sunk. The District Superintendent reported that within the limits of the Municipality 10 boats were broken up, about 20,000 fruit trees blown down, and 5000 native houses and huts levelled to the ground.

In the Subdivision of Sirájganj, the loss of life was very large, and not limited to the few cases reported to the police. 'Dead bodies,' writes the Subdivisional officer, 'continued to float down the river until the 24th of September, if not later; and I fear the number of persons drowned must be estimated by hundreds.' In the Sirájganj Subdivision alone, 111 boats with 34,132 *maunds* or 1249 tons of goods were sunk; nor does this number include numerous boats that were subsequently raised during the three days after the cyclone. The Subdivisional officer's house was unroofed, every police building and Government office at Sirájganj was blown down, and almost all the records were destroyed. The Maimansinh and Sirájganj mail-boat sank in the Jamuná, and three persons in it were drowned. The steamer 'Simla' and two flats were driven high on the bank of the Haráságar river, and three flats at Sirájganj

[*Sentence continued on page* 372.

RAINFALL AND TEMPERATURE OF THE DISTRICT OF PABNA FOR THE YEARS 1871 AND 1873.

			January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Year.
Rainfall,	Pábná,	1871,	...	0·05	2·44	4·18	11·27	12·54	17·65	11·98	14·69	7·72	...	...	82·52
		1873,	0·06	0·11	0·80	7·13	3·14	5·98	15·51	7·19	4·81	0·45	...	0·08	45·26
	Sirájganj,	1871,	...	0·35	1·61	2·93	11·09	20·50	15·22	8·38	12·84	4·04	...	...	76·96
		1873,	0·17	0·20	1·62	0·80	3·24	6·30	9·39	8·55	4·33	0·53	...	0·20	35·33
Number of days on which rain was measured,	Pábná,	1871,	...	1	4	11	15	24	18	26	18	6	...	...	123
		1873,	1	2	3	9	10	10	23	20	15	4	...	2	99
	Sirájganj,	1871,	...	1	5	7	12	20	22	14	17	6	...	...	104
		1873,	2	2	3	1	5	11	23	10	12	1	...	1	71
Mean temperature at Pábná in 1873,			67·07	73·24	83·00	87·25	87·11	86·95	84·93	84·04	84·49	71·90	73·55	66·20	79·81

Sentence continued from page 370.]
were stranded and much damaged. The steamer 'Rájmahal,' which was at Sirájganj, lost the whole of its upper deck and both its funnels. Throughout the entire District serious injury was done to the crops.

Besides the storm just described, the Collector reports that 'destructive cyclones occurred in the year 1854, in the Bengalí month of Jaishtha (May-June); in Aswin (September-October) 1866; and in Kártik (October-November) 1867.'

VITAL STATISTICS.—The general mortality returns for the Province of Bengal are as yet so little trustworthy, that no deductions can be made regarding the comparative healthiness of the several Districts. More careful statistics have, however, recently been collected in certain selected towns and rural areas. The town area selected in Pábná is two square miles in size, and contains a population of 15,730 souls; the rural area is 10 square miles in size, and contains a population of 19,276 souls. The death-rate per thousand in the selected town area in 1874 was 37·44; in the rural area, 19·09; and in the combined areas, 27·33 per thousand. As determining the actual death-rate, these figures are not absolutely beyond question, but they may serve for the purpose of comparison with statistics similarly obtained in other Districts. It appears that during the period to which the figures relate, there were eighteen Districts in Bengal and Behár less healthy, and twenty-three Districts more so than Pábná. The statistics of mortality among the police and among the prisoners in jail afford also some means of comparing the healthiness of Pábná with that of other Districts. During the four years 1870-73, the average annual mortality among the police was 9 per thousand, the average annual death-rate for the same four years among the whole police force of Bengal being as high as 19·8 per thousand. Among the prisoners in jail, the average annual mortality during the fifteen years ending 1871 was 5·69 per cent. of the mean jail population, the average annual mortality for all the jails under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal being 8·03 per cent. of the mean jail population.

ENDEMIC AND EPIDEMIC DISEASES.—The Civil Surgeon reports that there are no endemic diseases properly so-called in Pábná, but that fevers of a mild type, disease of the spleen, slight attacks of dysentery and diarrhœa prevail to a considerable extent. Cholera in a more or less severe form usually breaks out in spring and at

the close of the year. Of the 27·33 deaths per thousand registered in the selected areas of Pábná District during the year 1874, 20·42 were attributed to fever of various forms, 3·26 to cholera, ·17 to small-pox, ·43 to bowel complaints, ·51 to injuries, and 2·54 to all other causes combined.

INDIGENOUS VEGETABLE DRUGS.—The following is a list of the principal indigenous vegetable medical drugs found in the District of Pábná, as returned by the Civil Surgeon :—(1) *Anantámul* (Hemidesmus indicus), (2) *Apáng* (Achyranthes aspera), (3) *Aparájitá* (Clitorea ternatea), (4) *Amlaki* (Emblica officinalis), (5) *Anár* or pomegranate (Punica granatum), (6) *Akandá* (Calotropis gigantea), (7) *Adrak* or ginger (Zingiber officinale), (8) *Bel* or *Sriphal* (Ægle marmelos), (9) *Bhánt* (Clerodendron infortunatum), (10) *Banhaldi* (Curcuma zedoaria), (11) *Bhágbherendá* (Jatropha curcas), (12) *Bákas* or *Bákur* (Adhatoda vasica), (13) *Bahará* (Terminalia belerica), (14) *Bichuti* (Tragia involucrata), (15) *Bhuikumrá* (Trichosanthes tuberosa), (16) *Bákul* (Mimusops elengi), (17) *Báblá* (Acacia arabica), (18) *Bábni tulsi* (Ocimum basilicum), (19) *Bistárak* (Tiaridium indicum), (20) *Chháttain* (Alstonia scholaris), (21) *Cháulmugrá* (Gynocardia odorata), (22) *Jákhálgotá Jaipál* or croton-oil plant (Croton tiglium), (23) *Reri* or castor-oil plant (Ricinus communis), (24) *Chitra* or *Lálchitra* (Plumbago rosea), (25) *Champak* or *Chámpá* (Michelia champaca), (26) *Chhagaládi* (Sphæranthus mollis), (27) *Dhuturá* (Datura alba), (28) *Dhaniyá* (Coriandrum sativum), (29) *Debdáru* (Pinus deodara), (30) *Gáb* (Diospyros embryopteris), (31) *Golanchá* (Tinospora cordifolia), (32) *Ghrita Kumári* (Aloe perfoliata), (33) *Gandha-bháduli* (Pæderia fœtida), (34) *Hinchá* (Enhydra hingcha), (35) *Haritaki* (Terminalia chebula), (36) Horse-radish (Cochlearia armoracia), (37) *Hárjorá* (Cissus quadrangularis), (38) *Haldi* or turmeric (Curcuma longa), (39) *Isánmul* (Aristolochia indica), (40) *Jayantia* (Æschynomene sesban), (41) *Jabá* (Hibiscus rosa-sinensis), (42) *Jhampi* (Abutilon asiaticum), (43) *Jirá* (Carum carui), (44) *Ajawán* (Ptychotis ajowan), (45) *Kalápnáth* (Andrographis paniculata), (46) *Káládhuturá* (Datura fastuosa), (47) *Jamun* (Eugenia jambolana), (48) *Kathbel* (Feronia elephantum), (49) *Khayer* (Acacia catechu), (50) *Kálá Kálkásanda* (Cassia sophera), (51) *Kadamba* (Nauclea cadamba), (52) *Khetpáprá* (Oldenlandia biflora), (53) *Káládáná* (Pharbitis nil), (54) *Kálajirá* (Nigella sativa), (55) *Kurchi* (Wrightia anti-dysenterica), (56) *Lanká* or *gáchh marich* (Capsicum annuum), (57) *Mádár* (Calo-

tropis gigantea), (58) *Muthá* (Cyperus rotundus), (59) *Mahábalibach* (Zingiber zerumbet), (60) *Mendhi* or Indian myrtle (Lawsonia alba), (61) *Masiná* (Linum usitatissimum), (62) *Methi* (Trigonella fœnum-græcum), (63) *Nim* (Azadirachta indica), (64) *Nishinda* (Vitex negundo), (65) *Nágphani* (Opuntia dillenii), (66) *Nágarmuthá* (Cyperus pertenuis), (67) *Palás* (Butea frondosa), (68) *Páti nebu* (Citrus limonum), (69) *Punar-nabá* (Boerhaavia procumbens), (70) *Palitámándár* (Erythrina indica), (71) *Pán* (Piper betle), (72) *Pipul* (Piper longum), (73) *Pudiná* (Mentha sativa), (74) *Pániphal* or *Singhárá* (Trapa bispinosa), (75) *Patal* (Trichosanthes dioica), (76) *Raktákamal* (Nymphæa rubra), (77) *Siálkántá* (Argemone mexicana), (78) *Sajiná* (Moringa pterygosperma), (79) *Sij* (Euphorbia nereifolia), (80) *Sonálu* (Cassia fistula), (81) *Soná* (Bauhinia purpurea), (82) *Syámlatá* (Ichnocarpus frutescens), (83) *Simul* (Bombax malabaricum), (84) *Sephálikd* (Nyctanthes arbor-tristis), (85) *Supári* (Areca catechu), (86) *Somráj* (Veronia anthelmintica), (87) *Swet Karabi* (Nerium odorum), (88) *Sarisha sádá* (Sinapis alba), (89) *Sarishá kálá* (Sinapis nigra), (90) *Sasá* (Cucumis sativus), (91) *Sáluk* (Nymphœa lotus), (92) *Tetul* (Tamarindus indica), (93) *Tulsi* (Ocimum sanctum), (94) Tobacco (Nicotiana tabacum), (95) *Táraká* (Alpinia allughas), (96) *Teori* (Ipomœa turpethum), (97) *Til* (Sesamum orientale), (98) *Tagar* (Valeriana hardwickii).

Fairs and Religious Gatherings.—No large religious gatherings take place in the District, but there are several fairs attended by from one to four thousand persons. The most important of these are held at Sháhzádpur, Karanjá, Chátmahar, Mathurá, and Koruli; they last from one to seven days each. The principal articles of commerce at these fairs are, horses, cattle, cloth, shawls, brass and iron utensils, mats, shoes, umbrellas, muskets, leather, drums, and female ornaments. The Civil Surgeon states that he is unable to trace any connection between these large gatherings and the epidemic attacks of cholera that from time to time occur in the District.

Medical Charities.—There are three dispensaries in the District,—at Pábná, Dulái, and Sirájganj.

The table on the opposite page shows the work done by the medical charities of the District in the year 1872, and also their cost to Government and to their subscribers:—

STATISTICS OF THE MEDICAL CHARITIES IN THE DISTRICT OF PABNA FOR 1872.

DISPENSARIES.	Date of Establishment.	IN-DOOR PATIENTS.							OUT-DOOR PATIENTS.		OPERATIONS.		INCOME DURING THE YEAR.			EXPENDITURE DURING THE YEAR.			
		Total Patients Treated.	Cured or Relieved.	Not Improved, or Ceased to Attend.	Died.	Remaining at the end of the year.	Percentage of Deaths to Treated.	Daily Average of Sick.	Total Treated.	Average Daily Attendance.	Capital.	Minor.	From Government.	From Local and other Sources.	Total Income.	Paid by Government.		Paid from other sources.	Total Expenditure.
																On account of medicines and instruments.	On account of establishment, etc.		
													£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1. Pábná, . .	1853	196	140	32	18	6	9·18	7·85	1674	25·11	8	51	69 4 0	78 0 0	147 4 0	21 4 0	48 0 0	66 16 0	136 0 0
2. Dulái, . .	1867	58	38	10	7	3	12·06	2·35	2838	17·00	10	22	18 12 0	152 16 0	171 8 0	18 12 0	...	183 14 0	202 6 0
3. Sirájganj, .	1855	75	55	5	13	2	17·33	3·70	1668	14·90	9	58	149 6 0	105 10 0	254 16 0	29 6 0	120 0 0	123 16 0	273 2 0
Total, .	...	329	233	47	38	11	11·55	...	6180	...	27	131	237 2 0	336 6 0	573 8 0	69 2 0	168 0 0	374 6 0	611 8 0

THE PABNA DISPENSARY was established in May 1853. It is partly supported by the town fund, and partly by subscriptions. The building is reported to be well adapted to the wants of a dispensary; and a large well, sunk in the hospital compound in 1873, affords a good and convenient supply of water. The average number of patients treated annually during the four years 1870-73 was 2116.

THE DULAI DISPENSARY was established in October 1867. With the exception of medicines and instruments, which are supplied by Government, it is entirely supported by the local landowner Maulví Azím-ud-din Chaudharí. The average annual attendance of in-door and out-door patients during the four years 1870-73 was 2826.

The SIRAJGANJ DISPENSARY was established in 1855. It is supported by the town fund and by subscriptions, to which the European residents contribute very largely in proportion to their numbers and wealth. The average annual number of patients during the four years 1870-73 was 1779.

INDEX

TO

MURSHIDABAD AND PABNA.

A

Aboriginal tribes or population in Murshidábád, 43, 46-48; Pábná, 279, 282, 284, 285.
Absentee and foreign landlords in Murshidábád, 140, 141; Pábná, 328.
Abwábs or customary cesses in Murshidábád, 71, 200; Pábná, 318.
Adhiárí or *bárgá*, a land tenure in Murshidábád, 114, 119; Pábná, 309.
Administration of Murshidábád, 18-21; Pábná, 270.
Administrative divisions of Murshidábád, 230-232; Pábná, 365, 366.
Administrative history of Murshidábád, 230-232, Pábná, 365, 366.
Afgháns in Murshidábád, 60.
Age, Population according to, Murshidábád, 38-41; Pábná, 279-281.
Agrarian disputes and disturbances in Pábná, 318-325.
Agricultural implements in Murshidábád, 109; Pábná, 306, 307.
Agricultural labourers in Murshidábád, 110, 114, 115; Pábná, 307, 309.
Agriculture in Murshidábád, 99-107; Pábná, 301-310.
Aimá land tenure in Murshidábád, 108, 116, 122, 123.
Ali Vardí Khan, Nawáb of Murshidábád, 180-185.
Alluvion and diluvion in Murshidábád, 26-28; Pábná, 272.
Aman rice in Murshidábád, 101, 102, 136; Pábná, 301.
Anglo-Vernacular schools in Murshidábád, 171; Pábná, 362, 363.
Animals, Wild, in Murshidábád, 34, 35; Pábná, 277, 278.
Animals, Domestic, in Murshidábád, 108, 109; Pábná, 306.
Antiquities in Murshidábád, 87-93.
Area of Murshidábád, 17, 18, 39, 40, 236; cultivated and uncultivated, 105: Pábná, 269, 280, 366-369; cultivated and uncultivated, 305.
Area of each subdivision and police circle or *thánd* in Murshidábád, 39, 40, 232-236; Pábná, 280.
Area, out-turn of crops, etc., Murshidábád, 105-107; Pábná, 305.
Articles of trade, Principal, in Murshidábád, 29, 30, 157-168; Pábná, 275, 334-338.
Asiatics, other than natives of India and Burmah, in Murshidábád, 43; Pábná, 282.
Aspect, General physical, of Murshidábád, 21-23; Pábná, 271.
Aspects, Medical, of Murshidábád, 239-244; Pábná, 372-376.
Assumption of the Government, by the English, of Murshidábád, 192-194.
Asylums, Lunatic, in Murshidábád, 171, 249-251.
Atithsálás or alms-houses, Murshidábád, 171.
Aus rice in Murshidábád, 34, 101, 136; Pábná, 301.
Azímganj, a town in Murshidábád, 84.

B

Babla or Dwarká, a river in Murshidábád, 23, 25.
Badrihát or Ghiásábád, an ancient town in Murshidábád, 91, 92.
Bágat land tenure in Murshidábád, 120.
Bághdángá, an alluvial char or island in the Ganges river, 28.
Balance of trade in Murshidábád, 158, 168, 169; Pábná, 339, 348.
Balance sheets of the District of Murshidábád, 197, 198; Pábná, 354.
Bandhals, or lanes in rivers formed by mats, in Murshidábád, 27.
Bankar land tenure in Murshidábád, 120.
Bankers, the Seths, in Murshidábád, 252-265.
Banks in Murshidábád, 170; Pábná, 350.

Banks of rivers in Murshidábád, 25-28; Pábná, 272.
Bánsloi, a river in Murshidábád, 23, 25, 33.
Baral, a river in Pábná, 271.
Baran áman rice in Murshidábád, 101, 102; Pábná, 277.
Bardwán, District of, 18.
Bárgá or *ádhiári* land tenure in Murshidábád, 114, 119; Pábná, 309.
Barhampur or Berhampore in Murshidábád, 18, 74-80, 236.
Barhampur College or High School, 216-220.
Barracks at Barhampur, in Murshidábád, 75, 76.
Basket-work in Murshidábád, 154; in Pábná, 333.
Bástu land tenure in Murshidábád, 120.
Battles in Murshidábád, 93, 94, 180, 186, 187, 191, 259, 260.
Battles of Gheria in Murshidábád, 93, 94, 180, 191.
Beldángá (Bedango), a village in Murshidábád, 62, 63, 83.
Belia Narayanpur, a village in Murshidábád, 87.
Belkuchí, a municipality in Pábná, 275, 291, 296.
Berhampore.—*See* Barhampur.
Betel-leaf cultivation in Murshidábád, 100, 105; Pábná, 302.
Bhágirathí, a river in Murshidábád, 18, 23, 24.
Bhagwángolá, a town in Murshidábád, 84, 85.
Baidyottar land tenure in Pábná, 314.
Bhairab, a river in Murshidábád, 23, 24.
Bháng cultivation in Murshidábád, 104, 105; Pábná, 302.
Bhogottar land tenure in Pábná, 314.
Bils or swamps in Murshidábád, 28, 29; Pábná, 273.
Birbhúm District, 18-21.
Bishnupur District, 19.
Blights in Murshidábád, 131; in Pábna, 325, 326.
Blind, Number of, in Murshidábád, 42; Pábná, 281.
Boats, Number of, in Pábná, 280, 349.
Boro rice in Murshidábád, 32, 34, 100; Pábná, 301.
Boundaries of Murshidábád, 18; Pábná, 270.
Bráhma Samáj, The, in Murshidábád, 57, 59, 171; Pábná, 288.
Bráhmans in Murshidábád, 43, 48-50; Pábná, 282, 286, 314,
Bráhmaputra, a river in Pábná, 271, 272.
Bráhminí, a river in Murshidábád, 25.
Bráhmottar land tenure in Pábná, 314.
Brasswork in Murshidábád, 154, 156, 163, 164; Pábná, 337, 338, 348, 351.
Buddhists in Murshidábád, 61.
Building stone in Murshidábád, 34.
Bullion, Difference in price of, between Calcutta and Murshidábád, 168, 169.
Bunás or Uráons living in the country in Murshidábád, 47.
Buxar, Battle of, Murshidábád, 191.

C

Calamities, Natural, in Murshidábád, 26, 131-141, 238, 239; Pábná, 325-327, 370-372.
Campbell's, Sir George, educational reforms in Murshidábád, 221, 226; Pábná, 361.
Canals in Murshidábád, 29, 148; Pábná, 329, 330.
Cane, Sugar, in Murshidábád, 100, 105; Pábná, 302.
Capital and interest in Murshidábád, 169, 170; Pábná, 350.
Capital, Imported European, in Murshidábád, 170; Pábná, 350-352.
Castes, List of, with their respective numbers, pursuits, and relative rank in Murshidábád, 43-45, 48-56; Pábná, 282-284, 286-288.
Cattle in Murshidábád, 108-109; Pábná, 306.
Cattle diseases in Murshidábád, 251, 252.
Cemeteries in Murshidábád, 72, 73.
Census of 1872, its agencies and results in Murshidábád, 18, 36-42; Pábná, 269, 278-280.
Cereal crops, other than rice, in Murshidábád, 104; Pábná, 302.
Cesses, Customary, or *ábwábs* in Murshidábád, 71, 200; Pábná, 318.
Chakran or service lands in Murshidábád, 121; Pábná, 314.
Changes in jurisdiction in Murshidábád, 18-21; Pábná, 270.
Changes in river courses in Murshidábád, 24, 26-28; Pábná, 294, 295.
Character of the population in Pábná, 285, 297, 298, 334.
Charitable institutions in Murshidábád, 170, 171, 246-251; Pábná, 374-376.
Chars or alluvial islands in rivers in Murshidábád, 27, 28; Pábná, 294, 295, 312.
Chaukidárs or village watchmen in Pábná, 314.
Cheknái, a river in Pábná, 276.
Children, Occupations of, in Murshidábád, 115; Pábná, 307, 331, 352.
Children under twelve, Number of, in Murshidábád, 38-41; Pábná, 279-281.
Cholera in Murshidábád, 239, 240, 242; Pábná, 372-374.
Christian population in Murshidábád, 45, 61; Pábná, 279, 281, 284, 288.
Civil Station of Murshidábád, 18, 230; of Pábná, 270, 280, 296.
Climate of Murshidábád, 236-239; Pábná, 369-372.
Clive, Lord, and the assumption by the English of the Subahdárí of Murshidábád, 192.
Coal in Murshidábád, 33, 163-165; in Pábná, 337, 338, 348.

Colleges in Murshidábád, 67, 171, 215-220.
Commerce and trade of Murshidábád, 157-169; Pábná, 334-352.
Communication, Means of, in Murshidábád, 141-148; Pabná, 328-330.
Communities living by river traffic in Murshidábád, 29, 159-168; Pábná, 273-275.
Company, Trade of the, in Murshidábád, 82, 88, 93.
Compensating influences in case of drought or flood in Murshidábád, 26, 135; Pábná, 326.
Condition of the cultivators in Murshidábád, 97, 107, 108, 119, 120; Pábná, 305, 306, 315.
Condition of the manufacturing classes in Murshidábád, 154-156; Pábná, 333, 334.
Condition of the people, Material, in Murshidábád, 96-99, 107, 108, 154-156; Pábná, 299-301, 305, 306, 333, 334.
Conservancy in Murshidábád, 243.
Cossimbázár.—*See* Kásimbázár.
Cotton goods, European, in Murshidábád, 163, 164; Pábná, 336-338, 342, 348.
Cotton goods, Native, in Murshidábád, 88, 154, 163, 164; Pábná, 336-338.
Cotton weaving in Murshidábád, 88, 154, 156; Pábná, 332.
Courts of justice in Murshidábád, 231, 232; Pábná, 355, 356.
Criminal classes in Murshidábád, 207-210.
Criminal statistics of Murshidábád, 203-207; Pábná, 358.
Crops.—*See* Agriculture, Tillage, Rice, etc.
Cultivated lands in Murshidábád, 105; Pábná, 305.
Cultivators, Condition of the, in Murshidábád, 97, 107, 108, 119, 120; Pábná, 305, 306.
Cultivators' holdings in Murshidábád, 107, 108, 119, 120; Pábná, 305, 306, 315.
Cultivators' rights in Murshidábád, 114, 119, 120; Pábná, 306, 315.—*See also* Tenures of land, and Occupancy rights.
Cultivating tenures, Murshidábád, 119-121; Pábná, 315.
Customary cesses or *ábwábs* in Murshidábád, 71, 200; Pábná, 318.
Cyclones in Murshidábád, 238, 239; Pábná, 370-372.

D

Dacca, Collectorate of, 20.
Dákáití or gang or highway robbery in Murshidábád, 207-209; Pábná, 298.
Date spirits in Murshidábád, 100.
Daulatábád or Daulatbázár, a large village and municipality in Murshidábád, 82.
Day-labourers in Murshidábád, 110, 114, 115; Pábná, 307, 309.
Deaf and dumb in Murshidábád, 42; Pábná, 281.
Death-rate in Murshidábád, 244; in Pábná, 372, 373.
Deaths by drowning in Murshidábád, 29; Pábná, 273.
Deaths by wild beasts and snake-bite in Murshidábád, 35; Pábná, 278.
Debottar land tenure in Pábná, 314.
Demphá, a long-stemmed rice in Murshidábád, 32, 33, 102; Pábná, 277.
Density of the population in Murshidábád, 38-40; Pábná, 280, 365, 366.
Dependent *táluks* in Murshidábád, 116, 118; Pábná, 313.
Dhángars or Uráons living in towns in Murshidábád, 47; Pábná, 282, 284.
Dhulián, a town in Murshidábád with river traffic, 85, 159-161, 167.
Difference in price of bullion at Calcutta and in Murshidábád, 168, 169.
Diluvion in Murshidábád, 26-28; Pábná, 272.
Diseases in Murshidábád, 239-243; Pábná, 372, 373.
Diseases of cattle in Murshidábád, 251, 252.
Dispensaries in Murshidábád, 171, 246-251; Pábná, 374-376.
Distilleries, Native, in Murshidábád, 91.
Disturbances, Agrarian, in Pábná, 318-325.
Divorces in Pábná, 290, 291.
Díwání, Assumption of the, of Murshidábád by the English, 193, 194.
Díwání, History of the, of Murshidábád, 172-195.
Domestic animals in Murshidábád, 108, 109; Pábná, 306.
Drainage, Lines of, in Murshidábád, 27, 33; Pábná, 277.
Dress of the people in Murshidábád, 97; Pábná, 299.
Drought in Murshidábád, 135; Pábná, 326.
Drowning, Deaths by, in Murshidábád, 29; Pábná, 273.
Drugs, Indigenous vegetable and mineral, in Murshidábád, 34, 244-246; Pábná, 373, 374.
Dumb and deaf in Murshidábád, 42; Pábná, 281.
Dutch factory at Kálkápur in Murshidábád, 91.
Dwarká or Babla, a river in Murshidábád, 23, 25, 33.
Dwellings of the people in Murshidábád, 97-99; Pábná, 299, 300.

E

Educational Government grants in Murshidábád, 228, 229; Pábná, 361.
Educational institutions in Murshidábád, 171, 215-229; Pábná, 360-364.
Educational reforms, Sir George Campbell's, in Murshidábád, 221, 226; Pábná, 361.
Educational statistics in Murshidábád, 171, 215-229; Pábná, 360-364.
Embankments in Murshidábád, 25, 26, 29, 32, 133-135.
Emigration from Murshidábád, 45, 46; Pábná, 285.

Endemic fevers in Murshidábád, 239-242; Pábná, 372, 373.
English schools in Murshidábád, 171; Pábná, 362, 363.
Enhancement of rent in Murshidábád, 120, 130, 201; Pábná, 317, 320, 321.
Epidemics in Murshidábád, 239-242; Pábná, 372, 373.
Estates, Number of, in Murshidábád, 116, 201, 232-236; Pábná, 310, 312, 353, 355, 366-369.
Estates, Resumed, in Murshidábád, 116; Pábná, 311.
Estates, Rent-free in Murshidábád, 108, 121, 122; Pábná, 314-316.
Ethnical division of the people in Murshidábád, 42-45; Pábná, 281-284.
Excise in Murshidábád, 199, 200; Pábná, 354.
Expenditure of the District of Murshidábád, 196-201; Pábná, 353-355.
Expenses of living in Murshidábád, 99; Pábná, 300.
Exports of Murshidábád, 29, 30, 157-168; Pábná, 274, 275, 334, 336-339.
Exports, Statistics of, from Murshidábád, 163, 164; Pábná, 337, 338.
Eurasians in Murshidábád, 43.
Europeans in Murshidábád, 43; Pábná, 282.
European piece-goods in Murshidábád, 163, 164; Pábná, 337, 338, 342, 348.

F

Factories in Murshidábád, 82, 88, 91, 153; Pábná, 295, 330, 331.
Family history of the Seths of Murshidábád, 252-265.
Fairs and religious gatherings in Murshidábád, 94, 95, 157, 243; Pábná, 334, 374.
Fallow lands in Murshidábád, 131, 176; Pábná, 315.
Famines of 1769-70, 1866, and 1874 in Murshidábád, 136-140; Pábná, 326, 327.
Famine warnings in Murshidábád, 136; Pábná, 327, 328.
Fárásdángá, French settlement in Murshidábád, 91.
Faslí jamá land tenure in Murshidábád, 115, 119.
Females, Occupations of, in Murshidábád, 115; Pábná, 289, 307, 331, 352.
Females, Proportion of, in population, in Murshidábád, 38-41; Pábná, 279-281.
Female schools in Murshidábád, 171, 222-225, 228; Pábná, 360, 362-364.
Feræ naturæ in Murshidábád, 34, 35; Pábná, 277, 278.
Ferries in Pábná, 272, 273, 330.
Fever, Malarious epidemic, in Murshidábád, 239-242; Pábná, 372, 373.
Fibre crops in Murshidábád, 104, 105; Pábná, 302.—*See also* Jute, Hemp, Flax.
Filatures, or silk-winding factories, in Murshidábád, 82, 88, 90, 148-152; Pábná, 332.
Fiscal divisions or *parganás*, List of, in Murshidábád, 232-236; Pábná, 366-369.
Fish, fisheries, fishery tenures, and fishing villages in Murshidábád, 30-32, 35, 120; Pábná, 275-277, 311.
Flax, Cultivation of, in Murshidábád, 104; Pábná, 302.
Floods in Murshidábád, 26, 131-133; Pábná, 326.
Food of the people in Murshidábád, 99; Pábná, 300.
Foreign and absentee landlords in Murshidábád, 140, 141; Pábná, 328.
Forests and jungles in Murshidábád, 34; Pábná, 277.
Forest and jungle products in Murshidábád, 34; Pábná, 277.
French factory at Saidábád in Murshidábád, 91.
Fruit-trees and fruits in Murshidábád, 100; Pábná, 303.
Furniture of the people in Murshidábád, 99; Pábná, 300.

G

Game, Small, in Murshidábád, 35; Pábná, 273, 277.
Ganges or Padma river, in Murshidábád, 18, 20, 23, 24; Pábná, 271.
Gánjá cultivation in Murshidábád, 104, 105; Pábná, 302.
General physical aspect of Murshidábád, 21-23; Pábná, 271.
Geology of Murshidábád, 22, 23, 34; Pábná, 271.
Ghiásábád or Badrihát police station in Murshidábád, 91, 92.
Ghát or landing-places for boats in Pábná, 293.
Gheriá, Battles of, in Murshidábád, 93, 94, 180, 191.
Ghutin, a calcareous earth used for making lime in Murshidábád, 34.
Girls' schools in Murshidábád, 171, 222-225, 228; Pábná, 360, 362-364.
Gorábázár, suburb of Barhampur in Murshidábád, 76; vital statistics, 244.
Government, Assumption of the, of Murshidábád by the English, 192-194.
Government estates in Murshidábád, 31, 116; Pábná, 311, 312.
Government fisheries in Murshidábád, 31; Pábná, 276, 311.
Government grants for education in Murshidábád, 171, 216-228; Pábná, 360-364.
Green crops in Murshidábád, 104, 105; Pábná, 302.
Gunny, Trade in, in Murshidábád, 154, 163, 164; Pábná, 338, 347, 352.

H

Haldi or turmeric in Pábná, 302.
Harasagar, a river in Pábná, 271, 275.
Hastings, Warren, in Murshidábád, 18, 71, 184, 190, 193.
Headquarters of Murshidábád, 18, 230; Pábná, 270, 280, 296.
Hemp, Cultivation of and trade in, in Murshidábád, 104, 105, 154; Pábná, 302.
Higher schools in Murshidábád, 226; Pábná, 364.
Hill tribes in Murshidábád, 43, 46-48; Pábná, 279, 282, 284, 285.
Hills in Murshidábád, 23; Pábná, 271.
Hindu population in Murshidábád, 43-45, 48-56, 57-59; Pábná, 279, 282-284, 285-288.
Historical interest, Places of, in Murshidábád, 87-94.
History, Early, of Murshidábád, 18-21; Pábná, 270.
History of the Diwání and Nawábs of Murshidábád, 172-195.
History of the Seths of Murshidábád, 252-265.
Holdings of the cultivators in Murshidábád, 107, 108; Pábná, 305, 306, 315.
Houses, Number of, in Murshidábád, 39, 40; Pábná, 279, 280.
Houses of the people in Murshidábád, 97-99; Pábná, 299, 300.
Humayún Jáh, Nawáb of Murshidábád, 194.
Husbandmen.—*See* Cultivators.

I

Ichhámati, a river in Pábná, 270, 271.
Idiots, Number of, in Murshidábád, 41-42; Pábná, 281.
Ijára, a land tenure in Murshidábád, 117, 118; Pábná, 313, 314.
Imámbárá in Murshidábád city, 67, 68.
Immigration into Murshidábád, 45, 46; Pábná, 285.
Implements of agriculture in Murshidábád, 109; Pábná, 306, 307.
Imports of Murshidábád, 29, 30, 157-168; Pábná, 274, 275, 334, 336-339.
Imported capital in Murshidábád, 170; Pábná, 350-352.
Income of the District of Murshidábád, 196-201; Pábná, 353-355.
Incomes and Income Tax in Murshidábád, 272; Pábná, 353.
Independent *táluks* in Murshidábád, 116; Pábná, 306, 313.
Indigenous schools in Murshidábád, 221, 227, 228; Pábná, 361-363.
Indigenous vegetable drugs in Murshidábád, 34, 244-246; Pábná, 373, 374.
Indigo cultivation, manufacture, and trade, in Murshidábád, 29, 100, 105, 152, 153, 163, 164; Pábná, 302, 330, 337, 338.
Insane persons, Number of, in Murshidábád, 41; Pábná, 281.
Institutions, etc., in Murshidábád, 170-172; Pábná, 352.
Interest, Rates of, in Murshidábád, 169, 170; Pábná, 350.
Intermediate land tenures in Murshidábád, 116-118; Pábna, 312-314.
Iron, Manufacture of and trade in, in Murshidábád, 21, 33, 34, 87, 163, 164; Pábná, 337, 338, 348.
Irrigation in Murshidábád, 130-131; Pábná, 325.
Istimrári land tenure in Murshidábád, 116; Pábná, 314.
Ivory carving in Murshidábád, 153, 154.

J

Jafar Khán, or Murshid Kulí Khán, a Nawáb of Murshidábád, 173-178.
Jagat Seth, The banking house of, in Murshidábád, 252-265.
Jail statistics and manufactures in Murshidábád, 210-215; Pábná, 358-360.
Jains, a religious sect in Murshidábád, 58, 158, 159, 264, 265.
Jalangí, a river in Murshidábád, 18, 20, 23, 24, 25.
Jalkar (Fishery) tenures in Murshidábád, 31, 120; Pábna, 275, 276, 311.
Jamá or *jot* tenure in Murshidábád, 117, 118, 120; Pábná, 312, 313.—*See also Jotdárs.*
Jamu-Kándí or Kándí, a town in Murshidábád, 80, 81.
Jamuná, a river in Pábná, 271, 272.
Jangipur or Jahángírpur, a trading town in Murshidábád, 29, 81-82, 159-160, 167.
Jiaganj, a trading town in Murshidábád, 83, 84.
Jibikái táluk land tenure in Pábná, 313.
Jotdárs in Murshidábád, 117, 118, 120; Pábná, 309, 311-313.
Jungles and jungle products in Murshidábád, 34; Pábná, 277.
Jungles, Reclamation of, in Murshidábád, 103.
Jurisdiction, Changes of, in Murshidábád, 18-21; Pábná, 270.
Jute, Cultivation of and trade in, in Murshidábád, 104, 154, 157, 158, 162-164; Pábná, 273-275, 293-296, 302-305, 307, 309, 328, 331, 334, 335, 337, 338, 340, 341, 343-346.

K

Kalkapur, the site of old Dutch factory in Murshidábád, 91.
Kamár or blacksmith in Murshidábád, 44, 50; Pábná, 283, 286.
Káná, or Maurakhi, or Mor, a river in Murshidábád, 25.

Kándí or Jamu-Kándí, a town in Murshidábád, 80, 81.
Kankar or nodular limestone in Murshidábád, 21, 34.
Karátoyá, a river in Pábná, 271.
Kásimbázár (Cossimbazar), in Murshidábád, 87-90.
Khás Maháls or Government estates in Pábná, 312.
Kotáls or Kotwáls in Murshidábád, 96, 121.
Kuiyá, a river in Murshidábád, 25.

L

Labourers in Murshidábád, 97, 110, 114, 115; Pábná, 307, 309.
Lac trade in Murshidábád, 34, 163, 164; Pábná, 337, 338.
Lakes in Murshidábád, 28, 29; Pábná, 272, 273.
Lákhiráj or revenue-free land tenures in Murshidábád, 108, 121, 122; Pábná, 314-316.
Land, Cultivated, in Murshidábád, 105; in Pábná, 305.
Land, Fallow or uncultivated, in Murshidábád, 105, 131; Pábná, 305.
Land, Measures of, in Murshidábád, 113-114; in Pábná, 309.
Land, Reclamation of, in Murshidábád, 32, 103.
Land revenue in Murshidábád, 116, 196-201, 232-236; Pábná, 353-355, 366-369.
Land revenue under the Muhammadans in Murshidábád, 176, 179, 192, 195, 196.
Land Settlement in Murshidábád, 116; in Pábná, 310, 311, 313.
Land, Spare, in Murshidábád, 115; Pábná, 310.
Land tenures in Murshidábád, 115-123; Pábná, 310-316.
Landed estates in Murshidábád, 116, 121-123, 201, 232-236; in Pábná, 310, 353-355, 366-369.
Landholders in Murshidábád, 116, 121-123, 140, 201, 232-236; in Pábná, 310, 311, 328, 353-355, 366-369.
Landless labourers in Murshidábád, 97, 110, 114, 115; in Pábná, 307, 309.
Languages spoken in Murshidábád, 216.
Lepers, Number of, in Murshidábád, 42; in Pábná, 281.
Library in Pábná, 352.
Lime and limestone in Murshidábád, 21, 34, 163, 164; in Pábná, 335, 337, 338.
Linseed in Murshidábád, 104, 163, 164; Pábná, 302, 337, 338.
Literary institutions in Murshidábád, 172; Pábná, 352.
Living, Cost of, in Murshidábád, 99; Pábná, 300.
Long-stemmed rice in Murshidábád, 32, 33, 102; in Pábná, 277.
Lunatic asylums in Murshidábád, 249-251.
Lyall, Jas., and Co., a silk firm in Murshidábád, 151.

M

Mahájan or village money-lender in Murshidábád, 97, 170; Pábná, 291, 324.
Maidapur, the old Civil Station of Murshidábád, 76.
Malarious fevers in Murshidábád, 239-242.
Maldah, District of, 18, 20.
Males, Proportion of, in population in Murshidábád, 38-41; Pábná, 279-281.
Málís in Murshidábád, 44, 50; Pábná, 285, 287.
Mandals or village headmen in Murshidábád, 95, 96, 121; Pábná, 298.
Mansurí Alí Khán, the present Nawáb of Murshidábád, 195.
Manufactures in Murshidábád, 148-154; Pábná, 330-333.
Manufacturing classes, Condition of the, in Murshidábád, 154-156; Pábná, 333, 334.
Manure in Murshidábád, 130; Pábná, 304, 325.
Margrám, a town in Murshidábád, 83.
Marriage customs among the Muhammadans in Pábná, 290, 291.
Marshes in Murshidábád, 28, 29; Pábná, 273.
Marshes, Cultivation and reclamation of, in Murshidábád, 32, 103; Pábná, 277.
Mat-making in Murshidábád, 154; Pábná, 333.
Material condition of the people in Murshidábád, 96-99, 154-156; Pábná, 299-301, 333-334.
Maurakhi, or Mori, or Káná, a river in Murshidábád, 25.
Maurusi land tenure in Murshidábád, 117, 118; Pábná, 313, 314.
Mausoleums in Murshidábád, 72, 73.
Mauzás or townships in Murshidábád, 39, 40; Pábná, 280.
Mazkurí táluks in Murshidábád, 116, 118; Pábná, 313.
Means of communication in Murshidábád, 141-148; Pábná, 328-330.
Measures and weights in Murshidábád, 113-114; Pábná, 309.
Medical aspects of Murshidábád, 239-244; of Pábná, 372-376.
Medical charities and dispensaries in Murshidábád, 171, 246-251; Pábná, 374-376.
Meteorological aspects of Murshidábád, 238-239; Pábná, 365-372.
Middle schools in Murshidábád, 171, 226-227; Pábná, 364.
Minerals of Murshidábád, 33, 34.
Mint at Calcutta, 258, 259.
Mint at Murshidábád, 174, 253, 256.
Mir Jafar, Nawáb of Murshidábád, 186-188, 191.
Mir Kasim, Nawáb of Murshidábád, 188-191.
Mirzápur, a village in Murshidábád, formerly inhabited by silk weavers, 152, 155, 242.

Missionary schools in Murshidábád, 171.
Mixed races in Murshidábád, 43.
Model schools in Murshidábád, 171, 228; Pábná, 362-364.
Mor, or Manwákhi, or Káná, a river in Murshidábád, 25.
Mortality of the District of Murshidábád, 233-244; Pábná, 372-373.
Mosques in Murshidábád, 66-68, 70, 177, 179; Pábná, 316.
Mubarak-ud-Daula, Nawáb of Murshidábád, 103, 104.
Muhammadan ceremonies in Murshidábád, 68-70; Pábná, 289-292.
Muhammadan education in Pábná, 289.
Muhammadan marriage customs in Pábná, 290, 291.
Muhammadan population of Murshidábád, 38, 41, 45, 59, 61; Pábná, 279-281, 284, 288, 289.
Muhammadan revenues in Murshidábád, 176, 179, 192, 195, 196.
Mukarrari land tenure in Pábná, 314.
Mulberry cultivation in Murshidábád, 83, 97, 100, 105, 152.
Municipalities of Murshidábád, 62, 83; Pábná, 291-296.
Municipal police of Murshidábád, 203; Pábná, 357.
Murarai, a railway station and centre of rice trade in Murshidábád, 85, 161.
Murshid Kuli Khán or Jafar Khán, first Nawáb of Murshidábád, and founder of Murshidábád city, 65, 66, 173-178.
MURSHIDABAD DISTRICT—
Geographical Situation, Area, and Headquarters, 17, 18; Boundaries and Jurisdiction, 18-21; General Aspect of, 21-23; Hills, 23; Rivers, 23-28; Lakes and Swamps, 28, 29; Canals, 29; River Traffic, 29, 30; Fisheries, 30-32; Marsh Crops and Products, 32; Lines of Drainage, 33; Mineral Products, Jungles, and Forests, 33-34; *Feræ Naturæ*, 34-35; Population, Early Estimates of, 35-36; Census of 1872, its Agencies and Results, 18, 36-38; Population according to Sex and Age, 38-42; Abstract of the Population of each Subdivision and Police Circle, 39-40; Ethnical Division of the People, 42-45; Emigration and Immigration, 45-46; Aboriginal Tribes and Hillmen, 46-48; Population according to Occupation, 48-56; Castes, 48-56; Religious Division of the People, 57-61; Division of the People into Town and Country, 61-62; Murshidábád Town, 62-74; Barhampur Town, 74-80; Kandi Town, 80, 81; Jangipur Town, 81, 82; Daulatábád, 82; Beldánga (sometimes spelt Bedango) Town, 83; Margrám Town, 83; Smaller Towns and Villages, 83-87; Places of Historical Interest, Fairs, and Religious Gatherings, 87-95; Village Officials and Notabilities, 95-96; Material Condition of the People, 96-99; Agriculture, 99-107; Rice, 101-104; Other Cereals and Fibres, 104, 105; Miscellaneous Crops, 105; Area, Out-turn of Crops, 105-107; Condition of the Peasantry, 107-108; Domestic Animals, 108-109; Agricultural Implements, Wages, and Prices, 109-113; Weights and Measures, 113-114; Labouring Classes and Spare Lands, 114-115; Land Tenures, 115-123; Rates of Rent, 123-130; Manures, Irrigation, and Rotation of Crops, 130, 131; Natural Calamities, 131-135; Famine Warnings, 136; Famines of 1769-70, 1866, and 1874, 136-140; Foreign and Absentee Proprietors, 140, 141; Roads, 141-146; Railways, 146-148; Manufactures, 148-156; Material Condition of the Manufacturing Classes, 154-156; Commerce and Trade, 157-169; Capital and Interest, 169, 170; Imported Capital, 170; Institutions, 170-172; Newspapers and Printing Presses, 172; Incomes and Income Tax, 172; History of the Diwání, and Biographical Sketches of the several Nawábs, 172-195; Revenue under the Muhammadan Rule, 195-196; Revenue and Expenditure of the District, 196-201; Balance Sheets of the District, 197-200; Land Revenue, 201; Subdivision of Estates, 201; Operation of the Rent Law, Number of Suits, etc., 201; Protection to Person and Property, 201; Police Statistics, 201-203; Criminal Statistics, 203-207; Criminal Classes, 207-210; Jails and Jail Statistics, 210-215; Education and Educational Statistics, 215-229; Postal Statistics, 229-230; Administrative Divisions, 230-232; Fiscal Divisions, 232-236; Meteorology and Climate, 236-239; Medical Aspects of the District, 239-244; Diseases, 240-243; Vital Statistics, 243-244; Indigenous Vegetable Drugs, 244-246; Charitable Dispensaries, 246-251; Cattle Diseases, 251-252; Family History of the Seths, 252-265.
Murshidábád or Maksudábád city, 18, 62-74.
Mustard, Cultivation of, in Murshidábád, 32, 100, 104; Pábná, 302.
Mutijhil, a suburb of Murshidábád city, 73.
Mutiny in 1857 at Barhampur, 77-80.

N

Nadiyá District, 18, 20.
Nalhátí, a town and railway station in Murshidábád, 93, 146, 147, 168.
Nápit or barber caste in Murshidábád, 50; in Pábná, 286.
Native Christians in Murshidábád, 45, 61; Pábná, 284, 288.
Native medical practitioners in Murshidábád, 243.
Nats, a gipsy tribe in Murshidábád, 43, 46-48; Pábná, 282.

Natural calamities in Murshidábád, 26, 131-141; Pábná, 325-327.
Nawábs, History of the, of Murshidábád, 172-195.
Názim-ud-Daulá, Nawáb of Murshidábád, 191, 192.
Názim-ul-Mulk, Nawáb of Murshidábád, 194.
Newspapers in Murshidábád, 172; Pábná, 352-353.
Nizámat College in Murshidábád, 67, 171, 215.
Nizámat fund in Murshidábád, 194, 200.
Normal school in Murshidábád, 171, 228; Pábná, 362-364.

O

Occupancy rights of cultivators in Murshidábád, 114, 120; Pábná, 306, 313.
Occupations of the people in Murshidábád, 48-56, 110, 156; Pábná, 281, 307, 331.
Oil-seeds, Cultivation of and trade in, in Murshidábád, 104; Pábná, 302, 346.
Out-turn of crops, etc., in Murshidábád, 105-107; Pábná, 305.

P

PÁBNÁ DISTRICT—
Geographical Situation, Area, and Head-quarters, 269-270; Boundaries and Jurisdiction, 270; General Aspect, 271; Rivers, 271-272; Alluvion and Diluvion, 272; Ferries, 272-273; Lakes and Marshes, 273; River Traffic, 273-275; Fisheries, 275-276; Marsh Cultivation, 276, 277; Lines of Drainage, 277; Jungle Produce, 277; *Reṛe Náṭiyá*, 277-278; Estimates of Population, 278; Census of 1872, its Agencies and Results, 278, 279; Population according to Sex, Age, and Religion, 279-281; Ethnical Division of the People, 281-284; Aboriginal Tribes, 284, 285; Emigration and Immigration, 285; Population According to Occupation, 286-288; Castes, 288-288; Religious Division of the People, 288-290; Marriage Customs among the Muhammadans, 290, 291; Division of the People into Town and Country, 291-298; Pábná Town, 291-293; Siráiganj Town, 293-296; Belkuchi Town, 296; Smaller Towns and Villages, 296-298; Village Officials, 298-299; Material Condition of the People, 299, 300; Agriculture, 301-305; Rice, 301, 302; Other Cereals and Fibres, 302-305; Miscellaneous Crops, 302, 303; Area, Out-turn of Crops, 305; Position of the Cultivators, 305, 306; Domestic Animals, 306; Agricultural Implements, Wages and Prices, 306-309; Weights and Measures, 309; Landless Day-labourers, 309, 310; Spare Land, 310; Land and Fishing Tenures, 310-316; Rates of Rent, 316, 317; Agrarian Disturbances, 318-325;
PÁBNÁ DISTRICT—*continued*.
Manures, Irrigation, and Rotation Crops, 325; Natural Calamities, 325, 326; The Famines of 1866 and 1874, 326, 327; Famine Warnings, 327, 328; Foreign or Absentee Proprietors, 328; Roads and other Means of Communication, 328-330; Manufactures, 330-333; Condition of the Manufacturing Classes, 333, 334; Commerce and Trade, 334-350; Capital and Interest, 350; Imported Capital, 350-352; Institutions, 352; Newspapers, 352, 353; Income of the District, 353; Revenue and Expenditure, 353; Balance Sheet of the District, 354; Land Tax, etc., 355-355; Operation of the Rent Law, 355, 356; Police Statistics, 356-358; Jail and Criminal Statistics, 358-360; Educational Statistics, 360-364; Postal Statistics, 361, 365; Administrative Divisions, 365-366; Fiscal Divisions, 366-369; Climate, 369-372; Cyclones, 370-372; Rainfall, 371; Medical Aspects, 372, 373; Vital Statistics, 372; Epidemic Diseases, 372, 373; Indigenous Vegetable Drugs, 373, 374; Fairs and Religious Gatherings, 374; Medical Charities and Dispensaries, 374-376.
Pábná Town, 291-293.
Padma or Ganges, a river in Murshidábád, 20, 23, 24; Pábná, 270, 271.
Paháriá Máls, an aboriginal tribe in Murshidábád, 48, 55.
Páikán or police service tenures in Murshidábád, 121.
Palaces in Murshidábád, 66, 71.
Pán or betel cultivation in Murshidábád, 100, 105; Pábná, 302.
Panchdyats or village tribunals in Murshidábád, 96; Pábná, 299.
Paper manufacture in Pábná, 331-332.
Páramánik, village officials in Pábná, 298.
Parganás or Fiscal Divisions, Alphabetical list of, in Murshidábád, 232-236; Pábná, 366-369.
Pasture or grazing lands in Murshidábád, 34; Pábná, 305.
Páthsálás or indigenous village schools in Murshidábád, 221, 227, 228; Pábná, 361, 363.
Pátní, a land tenure with its sub-tenures, history, legal incidents, and prevalence in Murshidábád, 116-118; Pábná, 313.
Patwárís or village accountants in Murshidábád, 96; Pábná, 299.
Peasantry, Condition of the, in Murshidábád, 97, 107, 108; Pábná, 305, 306.
People, Material condition of the, in Murshidábád, 96-99; Pábná, 299-301.
Petoa táluks, a land tenure in Pábná, 314.
Phalkar land tenure in Murshidábád, 120.
Phúlihár, a river in Pábná, 271.
Physical aspects of Murshidábád, 21-23; Pábná, 271.
Pirpál, a land tenure in Pábná, 314.
Places of historical interest or importance in Murshidábád, 87-94.

Plassey, Battle of, in Murshidábád, 186, 187, 258, 259, 260.
Police circles or *thánás* in Murshidábád, 39, 40, 201, 202; Pábná, 280, 296, 297, 359.
Police statistics of Murshidábád, 201-203; Pábná, 356, 357.
Political or administrative divisions of Murshidábád, 230-232; Pábná, 305, 366.
Population of Murshidábád, Early estimates of, 35, 36; Census of 1872, and its results, 12, 36-42; comparative density of, 38-40; abstract of, in each subdivision and police circle, 39, 40; according to age, religion, and sex, 38-42; ethnical division of, 42-45; according to occupation, 48-56; religious division of, 38-41, 56-61; divided according to town and country, 61-87. Of Pábná—early estimates of, 278; Census of 1872, and its results, 269, 278-279, 280; comparative density of, 280; abstract of, in each subdivision and police circle, 280; according to age, religion, and sex, 279-281; according to occupation, 281, 307, 331; ethnical division of, 281-284; castes, 286-288; religious division of, 288; divided according to town and country, 291-293.
Postal statistics of Murshidábád, 229, 230; Pábná, 361, 365.
Potato, Cultivation of the, in Pábná, 303.
Prices of bullion. Difference in, between Murshidábád and Calcutta, 168-169.
Prices of food, etc., in Murshidábád, 99, 103, 104, 107, 109-115; Pábná, 307-309.
Primary schools in Murshidábád, 221, 227-228; Pábná, 364.
Principal articles of trade in Murshidábád, 157, 163, 164; Pábná, 334-338.
Principal seats of trade in Murshidábád, 157, 159-161; Pábná, 334-336.
Printing-presses in Murshidábád, 172.
Proprietors of land in Murshidábád, 116, 122, 123; Pábná, 310, 311, 353, 355.
Protection to person and property in Murshidábád, 201; Pábná, 355-357.
Pulse crops in Murshidábád, 100, 104, 105; Pábná, 302.
Puṇyá or annual settlement of the revenues at Murshidábád, 72

R

Railway traffic returns in Murshidábád, 168.
Railways in Murshidábád, 85, 93, 146-148; Pábná, 330.
Rainfall in Murshidábád, 238, 239; Pábná, 369, 370.
Rájsháhi District, 18.
Ranganáti, an ancient town in Murshidábád, 92-93.
Rates of interest in Murshidábád, 169, 170; Pábná, 350.
Reclamation of land in Murshidábád, 32, 103, 176.
Regular police in Murshidábád, 201, 203; Pábná, 356, 357.
Relief in famines of 1769-70, 1866, and 1874 in Murshidábád, 139, 140; Pábná, 326, 327.
Religious division of the people in Murshidábád, 38-41, 56-61; Pábná, 279-281, 288-290.
Religious institutions in Murshidábád, 171; Pábná, 288.
Rent-free land tenures in Murshidábád, 117, 121-123; Pábná, 314-316.
Rent, Rates of, in Murshidábád, 106, 123-130; Pábná, 316, 317.
Rent suits and disputes in Murshidábád, 130, 201; Pábná, 318-325, 359.
Residencies, Commercial, in Murshidábád, 82, 88.
Resumption of rent-free tenures by Government in Murshidábád, 119; Pábná, 311.
Revenue and expenditure of Murshidábád, 196-201; Pábná, 353-355.
Revenue, Land, of Murshidábád, 116, 196-201, 232-236; Pábná, 353-355.
Revenue under the Muhammadans, of Murshidábád, 176, 179, 192, 195, 196.
Rice crop in Murshidábád, 101-103; Pábná, 301.
Rice, Long-stemmed, in Murshidábád, 32, 33, 102; Pábná, 277, 301.
Rice, Preparations made from, in Murshidábád, 103; Pábná, 301-302.
Rice, Prices of, in Murshidábád, 103, 104, 107, 109-113; Pábná, 307-309.
Rice trade in Murshidábád, 163, 164, 167; Pábná, 335, 337, 338, 341, 342.
Rights of cultivators in Murshidábád, 114, 120; Pábná, 306, 313.
Rivers of Murshidábád, 23-28; Pábná, 271, 272.
River tolls in Murshidábád, 121, 196, 200.
River trade and traffic in Murshidábád, 29, 159-168; Pábná, 273-275, 335-339, 351.
Roads and means of communication in Murshidábád, 141-146; Pábná, 328-329.
Rope-making in Pábná, 333.
Rotation of crops in Murshidábád, 231; Pábná, 303, 305.
Rural police in Murshidábád, 203; Pábná, 357.

S

Sadr or Headquarters Subdivision in Murshidábád, 230; Pábná, 280, 296.
Safflower cultivation and manufacture in Pábná, 333.
Saidábád, site of French factory in Murshidábád, 91.
Saif-ud-Daulá, Nawáb of Murshidábád, 192, 193.
Saiad Zain-ud-Din Ali Khán, a Nawáb of Murshidábád, 191.

Salt trade in Murshidábád, 162-164, 168; Pábná, 337, 338, 342, 347, 348.
Samáj, The Bráhmo, in Murshidábád, 57, 59, 171; Pábná, 288.
Sanitation of Murshidábád, 243; Pábná, 369.
Santál Parganás, 18, 20.
Santáls, a hill-tribe in Murshidábád, 43, 46, 47.
Sanyásis in Murshidábád, 45, 49; Pábná, 284.
Sarfaráz Khán, Nawáb of Murshidábád, 180.
Schools in Murshidábád, 67, 171, 215-220; Pábná, 360-364.
Seats of trade, Principal, in Murshidábád, 29, 157, 159-161; Pábná, 274, 275, 334-336.
Semi-Hindunized aborigines in Murshidábád, 43, 55, 56; Pábná, 282.
Service land tenures in Murshidábád, 121; Pábná, 314.
Seths, Family history of the, the bankers of Murshidábád, 252-265.
Settlement, The Permanent, in Murshidábád, 116; Pábná, 311, 313.
Sex, Population according to, in Murshidábád, 38-41; Pábná, 279-281.
Shikmí táluks in Murshidábád, 116, 118; Pábná, 313.
Shujá-ud-Daulá, Nawáb of Murshidábád, 178, 179.
Sialmárí, a river in Murshidábád, 23, 24.
Silk, Culture of the worm in Murshidábád, 149, 150.
Silk spinning and weaving in Murshidábád, 82, 83, 88, 90, 148-152, 154, 156-158, 163, 164; Pábná, 332, 338.
Silk, *Tasar* or jungle, in Murshidábád, 34.
Singá, a river in Murshidábád, 23.
Sirájganj, the most important town in Pábná, 270, 273-275, 280, 291, 293-296, 342-350.
Sirájud-Daulá, Nawáb of Murshidábád, 185-186.
Size of holdings in Murshidábád, 107-108; Pábná, 305-306, 315.
Small-pox in Murshidábád, 138, 193, 242, 243; Pábná, 373.
Snake-bite, Deaths by, in Murshidábád, 35; Pábná, 278.
Soil, Description of, in Murshidábád, 32-34, 123, 124; Pábná, 271.
Spare land in Murshidábád, 115; Pábná, 310.
Spirits, Distilled, in Murshidábád, 91, 100.
Springs in Murshidábád, 33.
Statistics of towns in Murshidábád, 63; Pábná, 291.
Steamboat traffic in Murshidábád, 30; Pábná, 342-351.
Stone for building in Murshidábád, 34.
String, Manufacture of, in Pábná, 333.
Subdivisions of Murshidábád, 39, 40, 230-233; Pábná, 280, 365, 366.
Subdivision of estates in Murshidábád, 117, 201; Pábná, 353-355.
Súdra castes in Murshidábád, 50; Pábná, 282.
Sugar-cane, Cultivation of, in Murshidábád, 100, 105; Pábná, 302.
Swamps in Murshidábád, 28, 29; Pábná, 273.

T

Talkar, a land tenure in Murshidábád, 120.
Táluks, a land tenure in Murshidábád, 116, 118; Pábná, 306, 310, 313.
Tanks in Murshidábád, 29.
Tasar or jungle silk in Murshidábád, 34.
Taxes in Murshidábád, 199-201; Pábná, 353-355.
Taluk *dár* in Murshidábád, 28.
Temperature in Murshidábád, 236-238; Pábná, 370.
Temples in Murshidábád, 58, 59, 84, 177, 264.
Tenures of land in Murshidábád—estates paying revenue direct to Government, 116; intermediate tenures held at a fixed rental, *patnís*, etc., 116-118; cultivating tenures paying a variable rent, 119-121; service tenures, 121; revenue-free tenures, 121-123; Pábná—ordinary revenue-paying tenures, 310-311; resumed estates, 311; fishery tenures, 276, 311; Government estates or *khás mahálsí*, 312; intermediate tenures, *patnís*, etc., 312-314; rent-free tenures, 314; service tenures, 314; cultivators' holdings, 315; revenue-free estates, 315, 316.
Thánás or police circles in Murshidábád, 39, 40, 201, 202; Pábná, 280, 296, 297, 356.
Tillage in Murshidábád, rice crops, 101-103; other cereals, oil-seeds, and green crops, 104; fibres, 104-105; miscellaneous crops and vegetables, 105; area, out-turn of crops, etc., 105-107; agricultural implements, 100; manure and irrigation, 130, 131; Pábná—rice crops, 301; other cereals, oil-seeds, fibres, green crops, miscellaneous crops, and vegetables, 302; area, out-turn of crops, 305; agricultural implements, 306, 307; manure and irrigation, 325.
Tobacco in Murshidábád, 163, 164; Pábná, 337, 338, 346, 347.
Tolis, River, in Murshidábád, 82, 121, 164, 200.
Towns and municipalities in Murshidábád, 62-83; Murshidábád or Maksudábád city, 62-74; Barhampur or Berhampore, town and headquarters of the District, 74-80; Kándí or Jamu-Kándí, 80-81; Jangipur, 81-82; Daulatábád, 82; Beldángá, 83; Margrám, 83.—in Pábná, 291-296; Pábná town, 291-293; Sirájganj, 291, 293-296; Belkuchi, 291, 296.
Towns, Smaller, in Murshidábád, 83-87; Pábná, 296, 297.
Towns and villages, Statistics of, in Murshidábád, 62, 63; Pábná, 291, 296, 297.

Townships in Murshidábád, Number of, 39, 40; Pábná, 280.
Trade and commerce in Murshidábád, 157-169; Pábná, 334-352.
Trade, Balance of, in Murshidábád, 168, 169; Pábná, 339, 348.
Trade, Principal articles of, in Murshidábád, 29, 30, 157-168; Pábná, 275, 334-338.
Trade, Seats of, in Murshidábád, 29, 157, 159-161; Pábná, 274, 275, 334-336.
Traffic on rivers in Murshidábád, 29, 159-168; Pábná, 273-275, 335-339, 351.
Traffic returns of railways in Murshidábád, 168.
Treasuries of Murshidábád, 187, 188.
Trees, Principal, in Murshidábád, 100.
Turmeric cultivation in Pábná, 302.
Tut or mulberry cultivation in Murshidábád, 83, 97, 100, 105, 152.

U

Ullápárá, a town in Pábná, 275.
Uncultivated lands in Murshidábád, 105; Pábná, 305.
Uráons, a hill tribe in Murshidábád, 43, 46-48; Pábná, 282, 284.
Uriyás in Murshidábád, 45; Pábná, 284.
Uses of the water supply in Murshidábád, 30; Pábná, 275.
Utbandi land tenure in Murshidábád, 115, 119.

V

Vaccination in Murshidábád, 243.
Vaishnavs in Murshidábád, 45, 57, 58, 172, 265; Pábná, 284, 314.
Vernacular schools in Murshidábád, 171; Pábná, 362, 363.
Vegetables, Cultivation of, in Murshidábád, 105; Pábná, 302.
Vegetables, Wild, and forest products in Murshidábád, 34.
Village institutions and officials in Murshidábád, 95, 96; Pábná, 298, 299.
Villages, Number of, in Murshidábád, 39, 40, 232, 236; Pábná, 279, 280, 297.
Villages, Principal, in Murshidábád, 20, 85-87; Pábná, 296, 297.
Village watch or rural police in Murshidábád, 203; Pábná, 357.
Vital statistics in Murshidábád, 243, 244; Pábná, 372, 373.

W

Wages of labourers and prices in Murshidábád, 109-113; Pábná, 300, 301, 302, 307-309.
Wages of the manufacturing classes in Murshidábád, 155; Pábná, 333.
Wahábís in Murshidábád, 61; Pábná, 290.
Warnings of famine in Murshidábád, 136; Pábná, 327, 328.
Waste lands in Murshidábád, 105, 115; Pábná, 305, 310.
Water supply, Uses of the, in Murshidábád, 30; Pábná, 275.
Weaving in Murshidábád, 82, 88, 156; Pábná, 332, 333.
Weights and measures of Murshidábád, 113, 114; Pábná, 309.
Watson and Co.'s factories in Murshidábád, 151.
Wheat, Cultivation of, in Murshidábád, 104; Pábná, 302.
Wild beasts in Murshidábád, 35; Pábná, 277, 278.
Wild beasts, Deaths by, in Murshidábád, 35; Pábná, 278.
Wild vegetable or jungle products in Murshidábád, 34; Pábná, 277.
Wind, Direction and rate of motion of, in Murshidábád, 238.

Y

Yams, Cultivation of, in Murshidábád, 100.

Z

Zamíndári estates in Murshidábád, 116, 122, 123; Pábná, 310, 311, 353-355, 366, 369.

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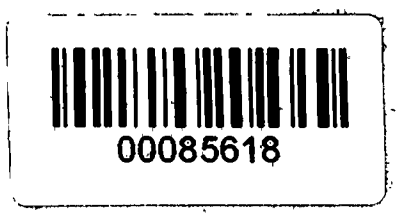
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